The Nation

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Summary of the News

The texts of the notes sent by the United States Government to the Governments of Great Britain and Germany regarding, in the one case, the use of neutral flags on British mercantile vessels, in the other case, the proclamation of a "war zone" around the coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, were made public on February 12. Temperate in language, but firm in insistence on the point of view expressed, these notes, it is hardly too much to say, are models of diplomatic correspondence. The note to the British Government, eminently friendly in tone, merely points out the difficulties that may arise, and the possible risk involved to American citizens, should the use of the American flag on merchant vessels as a *ruse de guerre* become a common practice under instructions from the British Admiralty. The note to Germany, not less friendly in tone, but stronger in intent and in precision of language, conveys a warning as to the consequences that might ensue should the German Admiralty carry out to the letter the intentions implied in its announcement of February 4. Should an American vessel or the lives of American citizens be destroyed, the note declares, "it would be difficult for the Government of the United States to view the act in any other light than as an indefensible violation of neutral rights, which it would be very hard, indeed, to reconcile with the friendly relations now happily subsisting between the two Governments."

In England the manifestly friendly tone of the note has been generally recognized by the press, and the possible risk to American shipping and citizens involved in the use of the American flag by British vessels of the mercantile marine is appreciated. As we pointed out last week, the employment of the American flag on such a ship as the Lusitania could not be expected to deceive a German cabin boy. Moreover, the idea that the British flag is no longer free of the seven seas is obviously not a pleasing one to Englishmen. Balancing, therefore, the respective claims of utility and sentiment, the one evidently weak, the other necessarily strong, it hardly appears probable that the practice of flying a false flag will be widely adopted. The British Government may insist, with propriety, upon the right of merchant vessels in international law to do so in cases of emergency, and that right is not disputed in the American note, but the probability seems to be that some assurance will be given that the practice will not be commonly resorted to.

The reception of the note to Germany, hostile at first, has, apparently under official instigation, become less unfriendly. The amicable phrasing of it is commented on semi-officially. Count von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador, on Monday presented to the State Department a note from his Government stating that Germany stood ready to recede from her announced policy if Great Britain would renounce her endeavors to prevent foodstuffs from entering Germany for the civilian population. That England will consent to a proposal of this kind is highly improbable, and the idea was virtually negatived by the intimation of Mr. Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty, in the House of Commons on Monday, that further action would be taken by the Allies to prevent the importation of foodstuffs in neutral ships to Germany. Mr. Asquith spoke in the House to similar effect on February 11, and Mr. Churchill, on Monday, added that "England's reply to the German threat will not be ineffective." In the reply, therefore, either of the British or of the German Government, we need hardly expect any renunciation of avowed policies. The effect of the notes will probably only be seen in the German practice with regard to submarine attack on merchant vessels, as in the British practice with regard to the flying of neutral flags.

The full reply of the British Government to the American representations regarding the detention of cargoes destined for neutral ports was handed to Ambassador Page for transmission to the State Department on February 11. On the same day occurred the formal seizure of the cargo of the Wilhelmina at Falmouth. The case of the Wilhelmina is still the subject of diplomatic negotiations.

In connection with the loan of $100,000,000 arranged for by Bulgaria with German banks, a further instalment of which was paid last week, it was officially stated on behalf of Bulgaria on February 11 that no political engagements of any kind are attached to the financial arrangement. The loan was arranged before the war, and in return for the financial accommodation Germany obtained important economic concessions, which were specified in the announcement.

Albania again figures prominently in the news. On February 14 Albanians crossed the Servian frontier in some force, occupied several towns, and compelled the Servian troops and the local authorities to withdraw. In the lack of more specific information it would appear probable that this was merely a sporadic raid of freebooters. Should it prove to be more than that and to represent a more or less concerted movement of any considerable section of the Mohammedan population, acting in the interests of Turkey and inspired by Austrian propaganda, it would seem inevitable that Greece, and possibly Italy, would go to the assistance of Servia.

Mr. Lloyd George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in announcing to the House of Commons on Monday that the war estimates of the Allies for the year amounted to some $10,000,000,000, declared that Great Britain was spending more than either Russia or France. Great Britain, Mr. Lloyd George added, was in a position to finance the war for five years out of the proceeds of her investments abroad; France could do so for two to three years, and for Russia there need be no fear as, on account of her prodigiously rich natural resources, she was in a different position from either of her allies. Mr. Lloyd George explained that at the recent conference of the Finance Ministers of the three countries in Paris it had been decided not to issue a joint loan, but that each country should raise the money it needed within its own territories. Only in the case of smaller states aiding the Allies will anything in the nature of a joint loan be negotiated. In this connection a significant statement in the Chancellor's speech was that "there are also other states preparing for war."

A sweeping measure of war taxation was announced in the Canadian Parliament on February 11 by the Finance Minister, W. T. White. The main items of the new taxation are found in an increase of the customs tariff and in stamp taxes applied to various business transactions.

The prolonged fight on the Shipping bill was shifted last week to the House, where the Democratic caucus on Monday, by a vote of 154 to 29, committed itself to a measure of compromise which appears in effect to be yet another bill. The bill was finally passed by the House early Wednesday morning by a vote of 215 to 122, and went to the Senate at noon of that day. Indications are that the Senate will allow it to come to a vote promptly.

The Interstate Commerce Commission on February 13 handed down a decision denying the application of the Southern Pacific Company for permission to retain ownership of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company unless that company should discontinue its operation of its vessels through the Panama Canal.

The most important incident that has occurred in Mexico for some time is Gen. Carranza's quarrel with the Spanish Minister, which culminated on February 11 in his ordering the latter to leave the country within twenty-four hours. The incident arose out of the alleged refuge afforded by the Minister to a Spanish citizen, whose surrender was demanded by Carranza. The Spanish Minister immediately departed for Vera Cruz and boarded a ship bound for Havana. Carranza, lurking in Vera Cruz, although having caused his authority to be proclaimed in the capital, followed up his insult to the representative of Spain by issuing orders on February 14 to all leaders of the Constitutionalist army to refuse to have any relations with or afford any information to representatives of foreign Powers, the exercise of all diplomatic functions being "the exclusive province of the First Chief of the Constitutionalists." This inhibition, it is assumed, will apply to President Wilson's new personal representative, Duval West, who was selected last week to go to Mexico and investigate conditions on behalf of the President.

The deaths of the week include: Gen. Lord William F. E. Seymour, Nicholas Williams McIvor, February 9; Robert C. Rathbone, February 10; John Langhorn Williams, Robert A. Balfour, February 11; Fanny Crosby (Mrs. Frances Jane Van Alstyne), James Creelman, February 12; Rev. Martin P. Dowling, February 13; Jules Huret, James Irving Manatt, February 14; Simon Brentano, Rev. George Washburn, Henry Clay Caldwell, February 15.

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The Week

At the caucus of the House Democrats on Monday night, Speaker Clark appealed for support of the President as the party "leader." There was a certain ambiguity, not to use a harsher word, in the Speaker's remarks, as reported. His implication was pretty plain that Mr. Wilson was leading the party to defeat. Of the President's Shipping bill, Mr. Clark said that he opposed the main principle, yet was willing to vote for it if the party leader demanded that he should. Then followed the queer argument that this was the only way to avoid an extra session, and that an extra session would simply wipe the Democratic party off the earth. Everybody had supposed that nothing but the long fight over the Shipping bill threatened an extra session. To drop that now and have all hands buckle to in order to pass the appropriations before March 4, would seem to be the advice which the Speaker should have given, his premises being what they were. But it is not necessary to try to unravel Mr. Clark's logic. It is his open recognition of the President as party leader that is the significant thing.

In the summary, issued by Count von Bernstorff, of a note presented to our State Department, there appears the same confusion of thought which underlies so many German arguments regarding the new warfare to be initiated against England's merchant marine. It is a confusion between the "law of necessity" and international law. Von Bernstorff makes a good debating point when he argues that, because of England's preparations to arm her merchantmen, all English ships have become a part of her navy and may therefore be attacked without warning or mercy. But there is no logical approach from that to the further contention that, because international law as between England and Germany has ceased to exist, because the struggle has resolved itself into the primitive condition of tooth and claw, a neutral nation is bound to acquiesce in the same suspension of the law as applied to itself. That German submarines will be in no position to stop and investigate the nationality of a merchant vessel, that they must strike without looking, does not change by an iota the fact that American ships must be allowed to go about their legitimate business, taking certain risks, no doubt, but risks limited by the practices of civilized warfare. Surely, Germany will not argue that as between herself and the United States the principles of international law are suspended. German diplomats must be aware that if an American vessel should be sunk without inquiry by a German submarine, it would be futile to cite the law of necessity. American public opinion has refused to accept that law in its application to Belgium. It will surely not accept it if applied against ourselves.

Von Bernstorff proceeds to argue:

> Germany has been compelled to resort to this kind of warfare by the murderous ways of British naval warfare which aims at the destruction of legitimate neutral trade and at the starvation of the German people. Germany will be obliged to adhere to these announced principles till England submits to the recognized rules of warfare, established by the Declarations of Paris and London, *or till she is compelled to do so by the neutral Powers.*

Once more the assumption is made that a neutral Power is obligated to exercise pressure in order to influence the attitude of one belligerent to another. We find here the German Government in an attitude similar to that assumed by Great Britain in the series of events that led to the War of 1812, an attitude described by President Madison in the message to Congress that preceded the declaration of war:

> When deprived of this flimsy veil for a prohibition of our trade with her [Great Britain's] enemy, her Cabinet . . . formally avowed a determination to persist in them against the United States until the markets of her enemy should be laid open to British products, thus asserting an obligation on a neutral Power to require one belligerent to encourage by its internal regulations the trade of another belligerent.

Let it be recalled that for a long time before 1812 the chances were almost as likely that the United States would fight France as England, and that the scales were turned against England by such insistence that the neutral United States must exercise pressure on France, a belligerent.

Lloyd George's speech to Parliament on Monday, on the cost and financing of the war, directed attention to several highly interesting points. The Chancellor of the Exchequer disposed, first, of the constantly repeated story that the recent conference of English, French, and Russian Finance Ministers was planning for a joint war loan by the three Allied governments. Such a proposal would, he said, have frightened every investment market—a statement probably correct, since the inference would naturally be drawn that the individual credit of the several Powers joining in such an operation must have been impaired. The next point is his estimate of war expenses. Lloyd George calculates that, in the present calendar year, the aggregate war outlay of the Allies will be, in American values, $10,000,000,000. This is a large sum total. But French experts close to the Government have estimated that in the seven months ending with February the direct war expenditure of all belligerents combined will already have reached $10,000,000,000. For twelve months, at the average monthly rate of expenditure thus indicated, this would aggregate $17,000,000,000, or a daily average of $47,000,000 for all the fighting states. Lloyd George's estimate, with respect to the Anglo-French-Russian Allies alone, comes to approximately $28,000,000 per day.

His further statement that Great Britain, during this present twelvemonth, will probably spend $750,000,000 more than either of its two allies, will surprise many people. But England's rate of war expenditure has been progressive. The latest weekly report of the Exchequer showed that, whereas the Government's average daily outlay for such purposes, since the outbreak of the war, was $5,200,000, the January daily average was $9,300,000. This of itself would be one-third of the total rate of expenditure by the Allies. But the Exchequer figures deal with "supply services"—that is to say, with the expenses of England's army and navy. Lloyd George points out that the London market is also helping to finance the requirements of Russia, Belgium, and Servia. This is on the principle that to make an alliance in such a war effective, "each country must bring all its resources, no matter what they may be, into the common stock." In this one finds another of the curious and unexpected parallels which have so frequently arisen with incidents of the Napoleonic wars. It is the modern form of the historic "Pitt's subsidies." The Chancellor estimates that England could continue the war expenditure, from her own capital resources, for five years, and France for two or three. Whether he bases this calculation on the supposition that England and France would resort to realizing on their foreign investments, is not altogether clear. All that he says is that the necessary money could be raised "out of the proceeds of our investments abroad"—which might mean principal or only accruing interest.

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In the Canadian Parliament last week, the two men who moved the Address in reply to the speech of the Governor-General were, one a German, the other a Frenchman. The fact illustrates the diversity of races brought together in political harmony in this British colony. The remarks of Mr. W. E. E. Weichel, the member for North Waterloo, representing a constituency in which there are many Canadians of German birth, were noteworthy, both for themselves and for the race of the speaker. He made no concealment of his deep feeling for the land of his ancestors; but he sought to distinguish between the Germany of his love and Prussian militarism. Speaking especially for citizens like himself, he said:

German-Canadians are proud of the race from which they sprung; proud of the progress that country has made in science, in art, in music, in literature, in philosophy, in chemistry; gratefully remembering the splendid literary works of Schiller and Goethe; proud of the wonderful compositions of Mendelssohn, Mozart, Hayden, Bach, Liszt, and Wagner. But, sir, they are not proud of the violation of the neutrality of Belgium, of the burning of Louvain, nor of the destruction of the Rheims Cathedral. German art, German music, German science, is one thing; but Prussian militarism is another; and the reason why so many people of German origin have left their old fatherland was to escape military domination; and to-day they are just as eager and anxious as you are for the obliteration of this curse which has been weighing so heavily on Europe for so many years.

That the German Social-Democrats were merely holding in reserve their fire, in deference to the wave of war-patriotism which swept them off their feet, was apparent from the first. Those Germans who believed that what they have called the "spiritual rebirth" of their nation would disarm the pestiferous Social-Democrats for all time were bound to be disappointed. Thus Herr Südekum, one of the Social-Democratic leaders, served notice the other day in Berlin that as soon as the war was over his party would present a large bill for patriotic services rendered, and demand prompt payment in the form of the abolition of some of the political inequalities of which they have so long complained. It was not expected, however, that Liebknecht's rebellion against the army estimates would bring forth any imitators, especially as he was subjected to criticism by men of every faith and by numerous labor unions. But if the dispatches are correct, other Socialist Deputies have spoken out, this time in the Prussian Diet, one, Herr Hirsch, demanding that the war be ended, and prophesying that voices for peace would soon be heard in authoritative quarters. It seems a sound prophecy to us; however firmly the bulk of the people may retain fortitude in the face of the terrible slaughter and the lack of any distinct military successes, there must be some men of conscience to see, and to say aloud, that the war is helping only the most hidebound reactionaries and the militarists within the Empire; that its chief victims are the poor and the struggling.

The new volume which Norman Angell has published bears a partisan title—"Prussianism and Its Destruction"; but it is broader than its name, and gives the author a chance to show that the kind of pacifism for which he stands is not dead. Thanks to a rash article by President Jordan, and to another title, "The Great Illusion," the impression is perhaps wide that Mr. Angell believed a war like the one now raging an impossibility. The case is, of course, just the opposite. He believed that as long as the illusion prevailed that nations were essentially antagonistic in political and economic interests, war was inevitable. Too much, again, has been made by even writers like Lord Cromer of the suspicion that Norman Angell taught that most war was waged merely for base motives of economic gain. It is probable that if the modern state were more commercial-minded than it is, the clear-sightedness of its business men would prevent more wars. Militarism relies in great part on false moral ideas and sentiment. As for the "fact" that the present conflict is purely one of ideas and ideals, it does not need pointing out that the ultimate seeds of much of the Anglo-German jealousy lay in trade rivalry. In the face of the great ruin wrought by the war, a ruin useless and hateful, there should be a new opportunity for "Norman Angellism" to make itself widely felt.

The Chairman of the Industrial Relations Commission interprets the duties of his office in the same spirit as the famous French gathering of judges, which met, according to Mr. Dooley, to do justice to the infamous traitor and scoundrel, Dreyfus. Mr. Walsh ushered in the work of his Commission in Chicago, as he did in New York, by denouncing a condition of affairs which he would now proceed to investigate. It is a gain at least that Mr. Walsh made no pretences. "It is true," he said, "that I am without judicial poise. My job doesn't require it, and if it did, I wouldn't use it," which makes one thing clear at least, and that is that Mr. Walsh is Irish. At bottom one imagines the explanation of the Chairman's fondness for delivering his verdict first and then calling for the evidence is to be found not so much in partiality as in publicity. He would be a rare chairman of an investigating committee who disliked columns of first-page attention, and the judicial mind is not the kind of mind that attracts the newspapers. A preliminary address that arouses sharp criticism and discussion is an infallible guarantee that the light of subsequent proceedings will not be hidden under a bushel.

The wheat situation is of an unusual character. Having raised much the largest crop in the country's history last season, there is at least a chance that we may enter the new crop season with the smallest left-over supply in more than a dozen years. That result is wholly due to our quite unprecedented export of wheat and flour; which in turn was caused partly by poor harvests in Europe last summer, partly by the uncertainties of the war, and partly by the fact that some 150,000,000 bushels of Russian wheat, the surplus of last year's crop, are blocked from export by the enemy. But the situation is not unprecedented. Our wheat crop of 1897 was one of the largest ever harvested, up to that date; but crop failures in Europe and uneasiness over the next year's Spanish War created conditions exactly similar to those which now exist. Even the price of wheat rose higher than this season's highest; but there was no talk of an embargo, nor any trouble because of the abnormally small "carry-over" at the season's end. What did happen was that our huge wheat exports—they were quite on a par with this season's—placed the United States in an immensely strong international position, helped to overcome the after-effects of the panic of 1893, and largely paved the way to the great industrial revival which followed 1898. That our export grain trade is to-day operating in a similar direction, the foreign exchanges show. It is therefore at least worth considering just what might be the ulterior consequences of an attempt to stop the trade. The truth is, two very different questions are involved; one, whether the Government should interfere, merely to force down the price of wheat; the other, whether it should intervene in case supplies, as judged by competent experts, threatened to fall to an unsafe minimum at the season's end.

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OUR GOVERNMENT'S STAND.

It is obviously fortunate that the notes of protest by our Government to Germany and Great Britain could be published on the same day. Their appearance together is mute but striking testimony to the purpose of the Administration to be absolutely impartial. If American rights are endangered by either belligerent, the President will see that they are maintained; and will be just as frank and resolute in making the position of our Government clear to England as to Germany. The publication of the two notes simultaneously was, no doubt, more than an undesigned coincidence. If President Wilson assumes a firmer tone to the German Government than to the British, it is plainly because the proposals and implied threats of the German Admiralty are clearly in violation of international law, while the occasional flying of the American flag by an English ship is not; and also because the former contains a much graver peril to American property and the lives of American citizens.

Though the remonstrance to Great Britain could not, in the nature of the case, be put upon such high ground, or couched in such precise and warning terms, as the note to Germany, it is explicit and firm. It is one thing to admit the right of a belligerent ship to hoist a neutral flag in an emergency; it is another to protest against the frequent and even habitual use of this stratagem, in a way to bring neutral ships and neutral subjects into hazard. The President is fully justified in asking that the English authorities restrain this deceptive flying of the American flag within the narrowest limits. If the thing were to be done repeatedly, not only with the permission but under the orders of the British Admiralty, and if American property were destroyed, in consequence, and American lives lost, it is difficult to see how the British Government could shirk all responsibility. This is the view which our Government urges, temperately yet with all due gravity and firmness. We do not doubt that the justice of the President's position in this matter will freely be conceded by the British Government.

To the German Government, the note of the Washington Administration reads a lesson in international law and the rights of neutrals. We do not consider it probable that any German commander of a submarine, unless he had gone crazy, would deliberately carry out the threat of the German Admiralty To sink even an enemy merchant ship, without stopping to inquire what would become of the non-combatant crew and passengers, would be an atrocity. To sink a neutral vessel in that way would be an atrocity tinged with madness. Still the intimation that such a thing may occur lies plain in the official statement of the German Admiralty, and our Government had no other course open to it than to give the most solemn warning in advance that it would hold the German Government to "a strict accountability" for any such trampling upon international law and outrageous disregard of the rights of neutrals and of humanity itself.

It is certain that the President's protest will be seriously weighed by Germany. Count Reventlow, indeed, with his characteristic Navy-League Jingoism, is quoted as declaring that Germany will not in the least mind if she makes an enemy of every neutral country on earth; and two or three German newspapers are frothing to the same effect. But the responsible rulers of the German Empire have not fallen into insanity. Knowing what fearful odds are already cast against them, they will surely not be reckless enough needlessly to increase the number of their foes. As for President Wilson, his political prestige cannot fail to be heightened by his stand in these matters. The President has again shown that the interests and the dignity of the United States are safe in his hands. His position, in the two notes, is not only sound in law and correct in form; it is resolute without bluster, and patriotic without a particle of spread-eagleism.

Prof. Franz von Liszt, of Berlin, has been lecturing on the international law of the war. With some things that he is reported to have said there can be no disagreement. Several ideas of the rights of nations, in time of war, which were supposed to be everywhere established and acted upon, have been rudely jarred from their pedestals. But to argue from this that international law has been absolutely destroyed, and that each nation is now free to go ahead and do what seemeth right in its own eyes, is to make too sudden a wreck of all modern civilization. Yet this is what Professor Liszt comes pretty near doing. After indulging in the usual denunciation of England for having proceeded selfishly, he took the ground that Germany, also, was now entitled to act in accordance with "German notions." "Germany must create a sea law against England." Hence the notification of a "war zone" around the British Isles; the threat to sink merchant vessels on sight by submarine attack, with the consequent peril to goods and passengers under neutral flags. This carries the conspicuous label, "Made in Germany." That being so, the position of the United States, and of all other neutral countries, is at once very much simplified. The United States will stand, not upon its own "notions," but upon the principles long since written into the law of nations.

Despite the gravity of the issues involved, and the possible dangers that may result before they are adjusted, one cannot help feeling that the whole controversy is unreal. There is the more reason for believing that the German Admiralty has been indulging in little except an empty defiance, and a threat which the event will prove to be virtually a *brutum fulmen*, when we stop to consider that Germany has not really the power to execute her menace. Her announced "war zone," and her blockade of the English coasts, are only on paper. Here and there she may get a submarine through the English naval defences, to wreak a certain amount of havoc, but the idea that in any such way she can overcome British preponderance at sea is preposterous. In plain language, the German Admiralty has been asserting, or seeming to assert, a sea-power which Germany does not, in fact, possess. The easier will it be, therefore, for her to recede from an attitude which, so far as it affects the United States, is both unlawful and intolerable.

THE HUMBLE BUT NECESSARY FACT.

The Industrial Relations Commission is gone and our foundations—with or without Capitals—have not been perceptibly shaken. A great many people must still be in a fog as to just what the Foundations have to do with industrial relations. But let that pass. The Italians say that it does not matter if a good story is not true, if it is to the point. Put it the other way and say it does not matter if an investigation committee goes in for something that has no connection with its legitimate subject of inquiry, provided it finds out something that is true. With regard to the Foundations, the Industrial Commission has found out nothing. What it tried to discover was a menace to democratic institutions and the social welfare in the great agencies set up by multi-millionaires.

Theoretically, such a suspicion might be justified. Any vast accumulation of wealth is a power, and if Mr. Rockefeller or Mr. Carnegie were so inclined, their Foundations

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might be employed to impose their wills, their views, or their fads upon a nation, openly or in subtle ways. In theory, Mr. Rockefeller's gifts to education might be employed to shape the course of educational development in accordance with his views. In theory, his gifts to municipal research might be an influence for anti-democratic developments in municipal government. In theory, Mr. Carnegie's pensions to professors might corrupt university teaching, and his gifts to libraries might be used to force upon the people the wrong books for them to read. It might even be that the large charities of these two men would do harm by dulling the public conscience towards the methods by which such great fortunes were amassed. At their worst the Foundations are a menace to democracy; at their best they are a sop to the public conscience—such is the theory.

But what are the facts? What instance of intimidation or corruption has brought to a head this fear of the Foundations? None. The question is not one of defending these institutions against unfounded suspicion. There is a broader issue involved: the habit of casting ourselves with fury upon an "issue," not only in the absence of facts, but in total contradiction of facts. For what is the truth with regard to the corrupting influence of the Rockefeller and Carnegie gifts upon social conditions? The University of Chicago has absorbed millions of the Rockefeller money and grown increasingly radical on the rich diet. The corrupting influence of Mr. Carnegie's pensions to college professors is evidenced by the extraordinary increase in radical thought in all the colleges. A dozen years ago the college professor and the college students were the Tories of these United States. To-day, under the insidious demoralization of Oil and Steel money, the colleges have organized Socialist fraternities and Socialist study clubs, and men like Albert Bushnell Hart have been bribed by Messrs. Rockefeller and Carnegie into supporting Mr. Roosevelt and the Bull Moose platform.

Are these the menacing developments which forced the Industrial Commission to dig into the Foundations? Some consciousness there was in the Commission that no fearful indictment could be framed against the Foundations on the record of the past. But there was the future. The Commission tried hard to find out the dreadful things that had not happened but were bound to happen. They tried hard to get at the "facts," and the nearest they came to the facts was in the testimony of Mr. Hillquit, as representative of responsible Socialist opinion. Suppose, said Mr. Hillquit, that the issue of Government ownership of railways came up in 1916, or maybe in 1920, and suppose that the Rockefeller Foundation were opposed to Government ownership of railways, can you imagine what one hundred million dollars would do to swing the election the way Mr. Rockefeller wanted it to go? Hardly a fact, this menace based on two suppositions; but assume that Government ownership is up in 1916, and that Mr. Rockefeller is opposed to the idea and sets his Foundation to work. What then? If every precedent and every indication of the public temper to-day count for anything, the intervention of Mr. Rockefeller against Government ownership of railways would insure the triumph of Government ownership; and if Mr. Rockefeller was in favor of Government ownership, Government ownership would be beaten. This state of the public mind is a fact which we commend to the attention of Mr. Hillquit and the Industrial Commission.

The national conscience shows no signs of going to sleep under the anodynes of Messrs. Rockefeller and Carnegie. The Industrial Commission does not really believe that the Rockefeller money for the Belgians, for cancer research, for hookworm, for colleges, has won popular opinion to the old methods of Big Business. Is the nation-wide outburst of horror and resentment over Colorado an instance in point? Colorado is one of the real facts which the Industrial Commission might have pondered over when it set out to battle against the menace of the Foundations.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO.

The bestowal of the first Spingarn medal —an admirably planned prize, to be awarded annually to the colored man or woman who has rendered the greatest service to the colored race—upon Prof. Ernest E. Just, a young scientist and professor in the Howard University Medical School, is certain to attract widespread attention. The committee, of which Mr. Taft is a member, did not find the choice an easy one, there being a number of possibilities from whom to select. That the recipient should be a scientist rather than an inventor, or a leader in farming or banking, will doubtless surprise many people, as it will put to their trumps those who continue to maintain that the negro is incapable of the higher education. Professor Just, be it noted, is but thirty-one years of age; yet he has already attracted the attention of scientists of repute, his original work in physiology, biology, and zoölogy having been heartily commended by no less an authority than Prof. Jacques Loeb.

Plainly this is just the type of man the Spingarn medal ought to distinguish—a colored man who is proving the capability of the race, and is also ready to make sacrifices for the benefit of his people. It has been a distinct weakness of the race in its struggle upward from slavery that it has often lacked solidarity and a readiness to contribute to the welfare of the whole. That this is now a rapidly passing condition there are plenty of instances besides this one of Professor Just to prove. Indeed, the support given to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, in whose hands Professor Spingarn has placed the award of the medal, is a remarkable case in point. That organization has taken radical and unpopular ground; time-servers in both races have shunned it as if it were something unworthy, instead of a manly and straightforward effort to preserve to the colored people their civil and political rights as guaranteed by the Constitution. Yet the Association has flourished, spread over the country, and made a reputation for itself as a guardian of the colored people's liberties, largely as a result of the efforts and financial sacrifices of the negroes themselves.

It is, of course, true that Professor Just is not the only colored man to do scientific work of a high order, nor the only colored teacher ready to labor for a pittance in order to aid the education of his people. But the honor bestowed upon him is worth while merely if it recalls to public attention once more the fact that no one can measure the contributions colored Americans are certain to make to our common civilization, and not merely in the fields in which lie their peculiar talents. It was a colored physician who first ventured an operation on the living human heart; a colored painter is in the front rank of his art as the delineator of Biblical scenes; no composer of recent years won greater honors than Coleridge-Taylor, the negro. Any policy, therefore, which should limit the education and the opportunities of the race must result in a grave loss to humanity as a whole.

No policy could be more erroneous. In the first place, for the exceptional man there must always be the opportunity to rise just as far as his genius will carry him; in the second, if a great mass of people is to be

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uplifted, they must have leaders of their own fitted to command because of their intellectual powers and their specially advanced training. They must have intelligent and well-taught clergymen, teachers, physicians, and lawyers, to say nothing of the other professions and of the need of skilled insurance-company managers, bankers, etc. These are not often to be obtained from the common schools, particularly if these schools are mere pretences, not schools, as are so many in the Southern States. This need has recently been well expressed in the first report of the General Education Board, where it is pointed out that if "primary and secondary negro schools are to have good teachers, principals, and supervisors, provision must be made for the higher training of these instructors and supervisors." At the same time the report points out that the "mere attempt to deliver the traditional college curriculum to the negro does not constitute a higher education," and urges the establishment of college curricula which shall be adapted from time to time to the needs, environment, and capacity of the negro student. With this we are in the main heartily agreed, and in so far as the opposition to the higher education of the negro is based on a belief that subjects are taught him which can have no practical value for him, this programme would properly meet the objection.

For the exceptional man of Professor Just's type no one ought, however, to fence in any field of learning. He should be free to roam where'er he will in our choicest educational pastures. Anything else would spell folly and, what is worse, a gross national injustice which would merely have to be stated to carry its own condemnation.

PLAYS AND PRIZES.

The withdrawal of "Children of Earth" at the Booth Theatre after something like forty performances will be taken as a confession of failure. This is inevitable in a community where success in the theatre is measured by nine months on Broadway and several companies on the road. One imagines that in Europe, where the standards for a howling success are much lower, five weeks might be considered a respectable record for a prize play which, by its very definition, is a play out of the usual and one therefore that starts out heavily handicapped. That is the first difficulty which confronts the aspiration to build up a theatre of ideas or a national drama in this country. Such a theatre is expected to have ideas like Anatole France, and to have a "punch" like George M. Cohan. To this faith we cling in spite of the obvious fact that the theatre of ideas in Europe is a subsidized product, making no pretence at popular appeal, and content with what would be regarded here as a mere *succès d'estime*. Take, for example, the foreign authors whom the various Little Theatres and Stage Societies in this country are always putting forward as examples for native talent to imitate—Synge and Lord Dunsany, Wedekind and Giacosa, men who in their countries draw only highly sophisticated and occasional audiences to toy theatres. It is hard to see why they and their imitators should be expected to draw full houses for an indefinite succession of weeks on this side of the Atlantic.

Prize plays, like prize novels, are intended to be of two kinds. The prize is offered either as a pure advertising dodge, in confidence that the publicity so created will float any manuscript that emerges from the shuffle, or in the sincere hope that it will bring forward talent which shrinks from the cold eye of the commercial manager—talent which hopes to be judged on its merits instead of its box-office possibilities. There can be little doubt that Mr. Winthrop Ames's offer was of the latter kind. Though the terms of the contest stipulated that the play should be one of popular appeal, the hope was doubtless that this quality would be found in combination with the finer and truer treatment which we associate with the term literature. But if it be recalled how thin our literature as literature measures up when compared with European standards; if it be further recalled that literary talent only rarely goes with a talent for the technique of the stage, it is plain how formidable a demand we make when we ask for a literary drama, a play that shall be both literature and a play. One imagines that Mr. Ames and his associates were aware of the difficulties of the problem. In the conditions of the contest it was frankly stipulated that, while the ten-thousand-dollar prize would be awarded in any case, the right was reserved not to produce the winning play, if the judges did not think it of sufficient merit. In other words, Mr. Ames would have been disappointed if his prize had to go to a play of the ordinary Broadway kind, promising commercial success, but not the kind of play which a contest aspiring towards the ideal play should produce.

It would be rash to assert that there will be no more prizes offered for plays, saying nothing of those contests which are mere advertising schemes. The idea of unrecognized talent coming to the fore under kindly encouragement is one that appeals to the public and that will recur to the theatrical producer. Just as every successful actor wants to play Hamlet, so we imagine a great many successful managers would like the distinction of bringing to light the ideal play, the play that combines ideas with the "punch." But if prize contests are to be successful in this way the conditions under which they are conducted must be changed. Since every such contest brings out a flood of manuscripts—there were more than 2,000 competitors with Miss Alice Brown—it seems inevitable that there shall be a first sifting of manuscripts by hired readers. Here is the danger. Is the average mechanical play-reader qualified to discern merit in rather unpromising material? Being an average reader, is he likely to recognize the value of a bit of work not average? What actually happens in such contests is that the judges of last resort, fully qualified though they may be, are compelled to render their verdict on the record prepared by a staff of perfunctory examiners. In the ideal contest Mr. Ames and his two associates would have read all of the 2,000 manuscripts. It is not impossible that in some ill-built manuscript of those summarily rejected by the subordinate readers an observer with the true eye for latent talent might have discovered the elements of a play which by skilful technical nursing could have been made into something worth the careful production which Mr. Ames gave to the prize play.

Examining 2,000 manuscripts is a little too much to ask of busy men like Mr. Ames and Mr. Augustus Thomas. The only other way, if prize contests there must be, is not to offer ten thousand dollars for one play, but one thousand dollars apiece for ten prize plays; and to produce them all. That, too, is a pretty big order, but on the mere scale of probabilities it ought to be a more successful venture than the selection of a single play. So many plays produced with diffidence have won success. Properly to conduct a play contest, a manager should begin by organizing a stock company for the purpose of trying out an entire répertoire. The process might be painful for the critics and the public, but it might also be profitable, and it would certainly be an education for everybody concerned.

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Chronicle of the War

The most notable event of the war during the past week was the Russian defeat in East Prussia. The concentration of German troops, which we noted last week, apparently resulted in a surprise for the Russians, who were compelled to retreat towards positions of defence on their own frontier. According to the German account, this defeat is comparable to the one inflicted on the Russians in the same district at the end of August, 26,000 men and fifty guns having been taken. The story of Tannenberg appears to have been repeated in almost every particular. It remains to be seen whether the comparison will be completed and this new battle in the Mazurian Lake region be followed in its turn by another Augustowo.

To speak of Germany at this time as nearing the end of her resources, whether in men or in material or in foodstuffs, would be manifestly an exaggeration. Particularly so far as military ability goes Germany continues to give evidence that the splendid fibre of her fighting machine is almost unimpaired. In the west her lines are maintained across the most productive portion of the enemy's country; in the east, at the moment when Russia most flatters the hopes of sympathizers with the Allies' cause, Field-Marshal von Hindenburg strikes with the precision and force of a steam hammer against the Grand Duke Nicholas's right wing, and the Russian armies that were pouring into East Prussia, had almost reached Insterburg, and were threatening Tilsit, recoil from the shock to the defences of their own frontier. On land clearly Germany is far from being beaten. She has suffered severe reverses and unparalleled losses, yet the morale and fighting efficiency of her troops appears hardly to have been affected. Undoubtedly, too, she has further reserves on which she can draw.

On the bare result of the winter's fighting the outlook would not seem to be encouraging for the Allies. Yet there appear to be unmistakable signs that all is not well with Germany. There is in the first place evidence of desperation to be read in the proclamation of a "war zone," on which fuller comment will be found in other columns, and particularly in the contradictory explanations of this measure which have come from official and semi-official apologists. First we are assured that Germany has plenty of food, that she can continue the war indefinitely out of her own internal resources; but with the next breath comes the feverish cry that Great Britain is starving her. The conclusion that we seem warranted in drawing is that Germany, though in no immediate danger of starvation, yet sees the peril of it looming ahead if the war be much prolonged. Again, it is necessary to remember the expressed intentions of Germany at the beginning of the war and the buoyant confidence of the march through France to the very gates of the capital, to realize what a change has come over the spirit of her dream. We hear little now of the crushing humiliation of France, or of the elimination forever of the Slavic menace, less even, in the last few weeks, of the invasion of England. Instead, whispers are growing more audible that Germany must maintain her grasp on the enemy country which she already holds, that she may strike a good bargain when the time for settlement shall arrive.

We can hardly doubt that the silent preparations across the North Sea that are now nearing completion are responsible in large measure for the new note of anxiety that we seem to hear from Germany. Through the winter Germany has held her own with ease. But the reinforcements from England are now almost due, and there is evidence that these are a good deal larger than has been commonly supposed. The English press, which clamored so vociferously for more men, giving the impression that recruits were not coming in in sufficient numbers, has quieted down considerably since the New Year. Lord Kitchener has resolutely refused to give any hint as to the numbers of his new army, but has always expressed himself as content with its progress. There is a general impression abroad now that his favorite phrase "recruiting is proceeding normally" signified a good deal more than the mere words. The House of Commons, it is to be noted, has made provision this year for an army of 3,000,000 men, exclusive of the Indian troops. But perhaps the most striking piece of evidence that the numbers of men in training in the Brtish Isles is very large is to be found in the record of daily expenditure on the war. From August 3 last year to January 17 the average was $5,235,000. In the next report after January 17 the average daily expenditure had jumped up to $9,350,000. In the following and latest report it had fallen again to $8,400,000. Not only does the enormous increase in the daily average seem to confirm the conclusion that Lord Kitchener has actually in training a very large body of men—as many, in fact, as he wants—but it seems a justifiable hypothesis that the difference between the expenditures given in the two latest reports may represent the cost of transportation of troops to France. Reports of such a movement have reached the press of this country by mail, and it would seem a safe assumption that at various points in Normandy large concentration camps for British troops have been established at which they are even now completing their training almost within sound of the guns on the firing line. The war, as Lord Kitchener is reported to have said, is soon to begin.

Foreign Correspondence

AIRSHIP RAIDS—THE PARLIAMENTARY SESSION—DATE OF DISSOLUTION—CAN GERMANY "FOOT HER BILL"?

By SIR HENRY LUCY.

WESTMINSTER, January 30.

Ministers directly responsible for the safety of the country are disposed to take a grave view of the airship raid on the East Coast that has called forth the execration of the civilized world. They believe it was a trial trip designed to ascertain how far such operations were feasible in more important directions. Possibility of an organized attack on London is spoken of lightly in some quarters. That is not a view of the matter Ministers having at hand special information are disposed to take. In their opinion London with its teeming population, its historic buildings, is the deliberately chosen objective. A special incentive is provided by the approaching meeting of Parliament. To get rid at a stroke of the Premier, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the First Lord of the Admiralty, and the dreaded Lord Kitchener would be an achievement well worth risk of the lives of scores of aviators. It will certainly be attempted.

In these circumstances it is pleasing to reflect that, as far as Parliament is concerned, opportunity will be limited. In ordinary sessions business in the House of Commons commences at a quarter to three in the afternoon and proceeds without break till eleven o'clock, sometimes later. Parliament resuming the session on Tuesday next will carry on its work under unparalleled circumstances. Ministers will not present the ordinary programme of legislative work. There is not even a budget to provide its quota for debate. It was passed through all its stages in a few hours of the short sitting at the opening of the session in November. There being no work to do, the Commons will on such days as they meet adjourn shortly after questions are disposed of, that is to say, between four and five o'clock. Thus the opportunity of the German airships to take a pot-shot at the Houses of Parliament will not extend beyond the hour of five o'clock in the afternoon. Their visit, including the journey across country, must be paid in full daylight, a condition not imposed upon them in their earlier raids on the East Coast.

Authorities upon finance, individually pessimistic in temperament, are beginning to doubt whether Germany will be able, if the war continues for another year, to meet the colossal bill of costs rolling up against her. The tribute levied upon France forty-four years ago was a mere fleabite compared with it. In that case there was only one claimant for costs. Before peace is signed at Berlin, Germany will have to reinstate devastated Belgium, and compensate the inhabitants of such districts of France as she was able to trample upon. In addition to these special charges there will be claims for heavy war indemnities. In times of fullest prosperity such demand for ready cash would have staggered even so rich a country as Germany. When it falls due it will find that country impoverished by long stagnation of trade. Where is the money to come from?

Before the resumed Parliamentary session is far advanced, Ministers will be called upon to state what course they intend to pursue with respect to a dissolution. There can be only one answer. In accordance with an act passed in the last Parliament, the duration of its successors is limited to a period of five years. That term will expire in January next. The dissolution will consequently be decreed at a convenient period not later than December. It is urged from the Conservative camp that a contested general election during the progress of the war would be contrary to state interests. The objection did occur to Lord Salisbury when in December, 1900, the Boer War being still in progress, he having in hand two full sessions of the existing Parliament, straightway dissolved it and came back from what is known in history as "the khaki election" with an overwhelming majority. While there will be a general election before the close of the present year, it need not necessarily be a contested one. An arrangement will probably be made whereby sitting members, if they care to offer themselves for reëlection, will be returned unopposed, the Government pledging themselves to appeal to the country as soon as peace is re-established.

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Belligerents and Neutrals

THE CONFLICT BETWEEN THEIR INTERESTS IN TIME OF WAR.

By E. S. ROSCOE.

LONDON, January 30.

It is impossible that maritime wars can be waged without producing conflicts between the interests of belligerents and those of neutrals, and the difficulty of reconciling these divergent interests is enhanced because there cannot be, as in the sphere of municipal law, a steady legal evolution as the years go by. Periods of warfare are abnormal times, and during the intervals between them many changes in the commerce of the world take place. International law in relation to belligerents and neutrals has, therefore, suddenly and unexpectedly to accommodate itself to these changes.

The most striking example of this is to be found in the case of what are rather erroneously termed by international lawyers continuous voyages. In days when commercial transactions were simple, and when scientific methods of world transit did not exist, one can understand that, if the destination of a neutral ship were a neutral port, cargo would not generally pass outside the neutral country. If it did, it would only be partially or by slow and painful stages. Therefore the neutral port was not only in theory the destination of a cargo landed in it, it was in fact the real destination; thus legal theory and commercial practice were at one. As soon, however, as land transit of goods by means of steam became general, commercial practice adapted itself to the modern state of things.

Through-bills of lading became common and international business transactions grew up, the result of which has been that the port at which goods are discharged is no longer a test of their true destination. In every great European port many hundreds of tons are transshipped from ocean liners to craft which make shorter voyages of a coastal nature, and an equal amount is transferred from steamer to rail and thence carried to centres in the Continent of Europe. It is obvious, therefore, that, having regard to the older doctrines of maritime prize law, a conflict between neutrals and belligerents in respect to the right of the latter to seize goods whose ultimate destination is enemy territory was bound sooner or later to arise and to be the cause of international friction.

The term continuous voyage as applied to the prize cases under this head in the Napoleonic wars was strictly accurate. It was, under existing conditions, illegal to send cargoes from A to C, legal from B to C. Cargoes were, therefore, ingeniously sent from A to B and thence reshipped to C. Various devices were adopted to give an appearance of reality to the transaction, but the British Prize Court looked to the facts of the case, and if the transaction was, in fact, a continuous voyage from A to C, the cargo was confiscated—the crucial question being not what was the true destination of the goods, but what was their original starting point.

By the time of the Civil War it was becoming obvious that, under modern conditions, the old idea that the destination of a ship was also the destination of the goods was based on a false assumption. The Supreme Court, therefore, could not, without throwing aside the truth of facts, accept the actual destination of a ship as the real destination of her cargo if it was clearly otherwise, and so, both for the purposes of the law of blockade and of contraband, the Court based its decisions on the *real* destination of the goods. That the particular decisions of the Supreme Court which relied on real destination as the proper test of destination under the law of prize should have frequently been criticised adversely by several writers on international law, shows only that the letter rather than the rationale of decisions is often too much regarded by legal text writers.

More than thirty years elapsed before the contention between neutrals and belligerents on this point again emerged, but it cropped up in a fragmentary way in the course of the Boer War. Another ten years elapsed, and it is evident in the Declaration of London, where, as is so frequent in conventions and committees, there is a manifest compromise. It was one between the opinions of those who would boldly rest their case on the only logical ground, namely, real destination, and those who were in favor of definite but less drastic rules. Such rules are bound in time of war to break down because, once it is admitted that a belligerent has a right to prevent certain articles from reaching his enemy, such right cannot be restricted by rules which rely for their efficiency on decisions or opinions given in different times and under different circumstances.

The same conflict and the same necessity for deciding cases by broad principles applied to the actual circumstances of the time are obvious in regard to contraband. In the Declaration of London aeroplanes were placed in the list of conditional contraband; in 1914, Great Britain placed them in the list of absolute contraband. This is a single instance only, but it is sufficient to show how science may render some rules of international law obsolete.

Primarily and in theory, as has been stated, these points raise conflicts between neutrals and belligerents, but it is equally obvious that, under some circumstances, the cause of one belligerent may also be the cause of the neutral; in other words, it may be both to the interest of a neutral and of one belligerent to endeavor to prevent the application of principle to practice, and to endeavor to minimize belligerent rights which are sound on principle. This places a neutral Power in a delicate position, for an ardent assertion of a neutral right may very well become in reality an active assistance to a belligerent.

Democracy Versus the Melting-Pot

A STUDY OF AMERICAN NATIONALITY.

By HORACE M. KALLEN.

PART I.

It was, I think, an eminent lawyer who, backed by a ripe experience of inequalities before the law, pronounced our Declaration of Independence to be a collection of "glittering generalities." Yet it cannot be that the implied slur was deserved. There is hardly room to doubt that the equally eminent gentlemen over whose signatures this orotund synthesis of the social and political philosophy of the eighteenth century appears conceived that they were subscribing to anything but the dull and sober truth when they underwrote the doctrine that God had created all men equal and had endowed them with certain inalienable rights, among these being life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That this doctrine did not describe a condition, that it even contradicted conditions, that many of the signatories owned other men and bought and sold them, that many were eminent by birth, many by wealth, and only a few by merit—all this is acknowledged. Indeed, they were aware of these inequalities; they would probably have fought their abolition. But they did not regard them as incompatible with the Declaration of Independence. For to them the Declaration was neither a pronouncement of abstract principles nor an exercise in formal logic. It was an instrument in a political and economic conflict, a weapon of offence and defence. The doctrine of "natural rights" which is its essence was formulated to shield social orders against the aggrandizement of persons acting under the doctrine of "divine right": its function was to afford sanction for refusing customary obedience to traditional superiority. Such also was the function of the Declaration. Across the water, in England, certain powers had laid claim to the acknowledgment of their traditional superiority to the colonists in America. Whereupon the colonists, through their representatives, the signatories to the Declaration, replied that they were quite as good as their traditional betters, and that no one should take from them certain possessions which were theirs.

To-day the descendants of the colonists are reformulating a declaration of independence. Again, as in 1776, Americans of British ancestry find that certain possessions of theirs, which may be lumped under the word "Americanism," are in jeopardy. This is the situation which Mr. Ross's book,* in common with many others, describes. The danger comes, once more, from a force across the water, but the force is this time regarded not as superior, but as inferior. The relationships of 1776 are, consequently, reversed. To conserve the inalienable rights of the colonists

**The Old World in the New.* By Edward Alsworth Ross. New York: The Century Company. $2.40 net.

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of 1776, it was necessary to declare all men equal; to conserve the inalienable rights of their descendants in 1914, it becomes necessary to declare all men unequal. In 1776 all men were as good as their betters; in 1914 men are permanently worse than their betters. "A nation may reason," writes Mr. Ross, "why burden ourselves with the rearing of children? Let them perish unborn in the womb of time. The immigrants will keep up the population. A people that has no more respect for its ancestors and no more pride of race than this deserves the extinction that surely awaits it."

I.

Respect for ancestors, pride of race! Time was when these would have been repudiated as the enemies of democracy, as the antithesis of the fundamentals of our republic, with its belief that "a man's a man for a' that." And now they are being invoked in defence of democracy, against the "melting-pot," by a sociological protagonist of the "democratic idea"! How conscious their invocation is cannot be said. But that they have unconsciously colored much of the social and political thinking of this country from the days of the Cincinnati on, seems to me unquestionable, and even more unquestionable that this apparently sudden and explicit conscious expression of them is the effect of an actual, felt menace. Mr. Ross, in a word, is no voice crying in a wilderness. He simply utters aloud and in his own peculiar manner what is felt and spoken wherever Americans of British ancestry congregate thoughtfully. He is the most recent phase of the operation of these forces in the social and economic history of the United States; a voice and instrument of theirs. Being so, he has neither taken account of them nor observed them, but has reacted in terms of them to the social situation which constitutes the theme of his book. The reaction is secondary, the situation is secondary. The standards alone are really primary and, perhaps, ultimate. Fully to understand the place and function of "the old world in the new," and the attitude of the "new world" towards the old, demands an appreciation of the influence of these primary and ultimate standards upon all the peoples who are citizens of the country.

II.

In 1776 the mass of white men in the colonies *were* actually, with respect to one another, rather free and rather equal. I refer, not so much to the absence of great differences in wealth, as to the fact that the whites were *like-minded*. They were possessed of ethnic and cultural unity; they were homogeneous with respect to ancestry and ideals. Their century-and-a-half-old tradition as Americans was continuous with their immemorially older tradition as Britons. They did not, until the economic-political quarrel with the mother country arose, regard themselves as other than Englishmen, sharing England's dangers and England's glories. When the quarrel came they remembered how they had left the mother country in search of religious liberty for themselves; how they had left Holland, where they had found this liberty, for fear of losing their ethnic and cultural identity, and what hardships they had borne for the sake of conserving both the liberty and the identity. Upon these they grafted that political liberty the love of which was innate, perhaps, but the expression of which was occasioned by the economic warfare with the merchants of England. This grafting was not, of course, conscious. The continuity established itself rather as a mood than as an articulate idea. The economic situation *was* only an occasion, and not a cause. The cause lay in the homogeneity of the people, their *like-mindedness*, and in their *self-consciousness*.

Now, it happens that the preservation and development of any given type of civilization rests upon these two conditions—like-mindedness and self-consciousness. Without them art, literature—culture in any of its nobler forms—is impossible: and colonial America had a culture—chiefly of New England—but representative enough of the whole British-American life of the period. Within the area of what we now call the United States this life was not, however, the only life. Similarly animated groups of Frenchmen and Germans, in Louisiana and in Pennsylvania, regarded themselves as the cultural peers of the British, and because of their own common ancestry, their like-mindedness and self-consciousness, they have retained a large measure of their individuality and spiritual autonomy to this day, after generations of unrestricted and mobile contact and a century of political union with the dominant British populations.

In the course of time the state, which began to be with the Declaration of Independence, became possessed of all the United States. French and Germans in Louisiana and Pennsylvania remained at home; but the descendants of the British colonists trekked across the continent, leaving tiny self-conscious nuclei of population in their wake, and so established ethnic and cultural standards for the whole country. Had the increase of these settlements borne the same proportion to the unit of population that it bore between 1810 and 1820, the Americans of British stock would have numbered today over 100,000,000. The inhabitants of the country do number over 100,000,000; but they are not the children of the colonists and pioneers: they are immigrants and the children of immigrants, and they are not British, but of all the other European stocks.

First came the Irish, integral to the polity of Great Britain, but ethnically different, Catholic in religion, fleeing from economic and political oppression, and—self-conscious and rebellious. They came seeking food and freedom, and revenge against the oppressors on the other side. Their area of settlement is chiefly the East. There they were not met with open arms. Historically only semi-alien, their appearance aroused, none the less, both fear and active opposition. Their diversity in religion was outstanding, their gregarious politics disturbing. Opposition, organized, religious, political, and social, stimulated their natural gregariousness into action. They organized, in their turn, religiously and politically. Slowly they made their way, slowly they came to power, establishing themselves in many modes as potent forces in the life of America. Mr. Ross thinks that they have their virtue still to prove; how he does not say. To the common-sense of the country they constitute an approved ethnic unity of the white American population.

Behind the Irish came the great mass of the Germans, quite diverse in speech and customs, culturally and economically far better off than the Irish, and self-conscious, as well through oppression and political aspiration as for these other reasons. They settled inland, over a stretch of relatively continuous territory extending from western New York to the Mississippi, from Buffalo to Minneapolis, and from Minneapolis to St. Louis. Spiritually, these Germans were more akin to the American settlers than the Irish, and, indeed, although social misprision pursued them also, they were less coldly received and with less difficulty tolerated. As they made their way, greater and greater numbers of the peasant stock joined them in the Western nuclei of population, so that between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi Valley they constitute the dominant ethnic type.

Beyond them, in Minnesota, their near neighbors, the Scandinavians, prevail, and beyond these, in the mountain and mining regions, the central and eastern and southern Europeans—Slavs of various stocks, Magyars, Finns, Italians. Beyond the Rockies, cut off from the rest of the country by this natural barrier, a stratum of Americans of British ancestry balances the thinnish stratum on the Atlantic sea-coast; flanked on the south by Latins and scattering groups of Asiatics, and on the north by Scandinavians. The distribution of the population upon the two coasts is not dissimilar; that upon the Atlantic littoral is only less homogeneous. There French-Canadians, Irish, Italians, Slavs, and Jews alternate with the American population and each other, while in the West the Americans lie between and surround the Italians, Asiatics, Germans, and Scandinavians.

Now, of all these immigrant peoples the greater part are peasants, vastly illiterate, living their lives at fighting weight, with a minimum of food and a maximum of toil. Mr. Ross thinks that their coming to America was determined by no spiritual urge; only the urge of steamship agencies and economic need or greed. However generally true this opinion may be, he ignores, curiously enough, three significant and one notable exception to it. The significant exceptions are the Poles, the Finns, the Bohemians—the subjugated Slavic nationalities generally. Political and religious and cultural persecution plays no small rôle in the movement of the masses of them. The notable exception is the Jews. The Jews come

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far more with the attitude of the earliest settlers than any of the other peoples; for they more than any other present-day immigrant group are in flight from persecution and disaster; in search of economic opportunity, liberty of conscience, civic rights. They have settled chiefly in the Northeast, with New York city as the centre of greatest concentration. Among them, as among the Puritans, the Pennsylvania Germans, the French of Louisiana, self-consciousness and like-mindedness are intense and articulate. But they differ from the subjugated Slavic peoples in that the latter look backward and forward to *actual*, even if enslaved, home lands; the Jews, in the mass, have thus far looked to America as their home land.

In sum, when we consider that portion of our population which has taken root, we see that it has not stippled the country in small units of diverse ethnic groups. It forms rather a series of stripes or layers of varying sizes, moving east to west along the central axis of settlement, where towns are thickest; *i. e.*, from New York and Philadelphia, through Chicago and St. Louis, to San Francisco and Seattle. Stippling is absent even in the towns, where the variety of population is generally greater. Probably 90 per cent. of that population is either foreign-born or of foreign stock; yet even so, the towns are aggregations, not units. Broadly divided into the sections inhabited by the rich and those inhabited by the poor, this economic division does not abolish, it only crosses, the ethnic one. There are rich and poor little Italys, Irelands, Hungarys, Germanys, and rich and poor Ghettoes. The *common* city life, which depends upon like-mindedness, is not inward, corporate, and inevitable, but external, inarticulate, and incidental, a reaction to the need of amusement and the need of protection, not the expression of a unity of heritage, mentality, and interest. Politics and education in our cities thus present the phenomenon of ethnic compromises not unknown in Austria-Hungary; concessions and appeals to "the Irish vote," "the Jewish vote," "the German vote"; compromise school committees where members represent each ethnic faction, until, as in Boston, one group grows strong enough to dominate the entire situation.

South of Mason and Dixon's line the cities exhibit a greater homogeneity. Outside of certain regions in Texas the descendants of the native white stock, often degenerate and backward, prevail among the whites, but the whites as a whole constitute a relatively weaker proportion of the population. They live among nine million negroes, whose own mode of living tends, by its mere massiveness, to standardize the "mind" of the proletarian South in speech, manner, and the other values of social organization.

III.

All the immigrants and their offspring are in the way of becoming "Americanized," if they remain in one place in the country long enough—say, six or seven years. The general notion, "Americanization," appears to denote the adoption of English speech, of American clothes and manners, of the American attitude in politics. It connotes the fusion of the various bloods, and a transmutation by "the miracle of assimilation" of Jews, Slavs, Poles, Frenchmen, Germans, Hindus, Scandinavians into beings similar in background, tradition, outlook, and spirit to the descendants of the British colonists, the Anglo-Saxon stock. Broadly speaking, the elements of Americanism are somewhat external, the effect of environment; largely internal, the effect of heredity. Our economic individualism, our traditional *laissez-faire* policy, is largely the effect of environment: where nature offers more than enough wealth to go round, there is no immediate need for regulating distribution. What poverty and unemployment exist among us is the result of unskilled and wasteful social housekeeping, not of any actual natural barrenness. And until the disparity between our economic resources and our population becomes equalized, so that the country shall attain an approximate economic equilibrium, this will always be the case. With our individualism go our optimism and our other "pioneer" virtues: they are purely reactions to our unexploited natural wealth, and, as such, moods which characterize all societies in which the relation between population and resource is similar. The predominance of the "new freedom" over the "new nationalism" is a potent political expression of this relationship, and the overwhelming concern of both novelties with the economic situation rather than with the cultural or spiritual is a still stronger one. That these last alone justify or condemn this or that economic condition or programme is a commonplace: "by their fruits shall ye know the soils and the roots."

The fruits in this case are those of New England. Eliminate from our roster Whittier, Longfellow, Lowell, Hawthorne, Emerson, Howells, and what have we left? Outstanding are Poe and Whitman, and the necromantic mysticism of the former is only a sick-minded version of the naturalistic mysticism of the latter, while the general mood of both is that of Emerson, who in his way expresses the culmination of that movement in mysticism from the agonized conscience of colonial and Puritan New England—to which Hawthorne gives voice—to serene and optimistic assurance. In religion this spirit of Puritan New England non-conformity culminates similarly: in Christian Science when it is superstitious and magical; in Unitarianism when it is rationalistic: in both cases, over against the personal individualism, there is the cosmic unity. For New England, religious, political, and literary interests remained coördinate and indivisible; and New England gave the tone to and established the standards for the rest of the American state. Save for the very early political writers, the "solid South" remains unexpressed, while the march of the pioneer across the continent is permanently marked by Mark Twain for the Middle West, and by Bret Harte for the Pacific slope. Both these men carry something of the tone and spirit of New England, and with them the "great tradition" of America, the America of the "Anglo-Saxon," comes to an end. There remains nothing large or significant that is unexpressed, and no unmentioned writer who is so completely representative.

The background, tradition, spirit, and outlook of the whole of the America of the "Anglo-Saxon," then, find their spiritual expression in the New England school, Poe, Whitman, Mark Twain, Bret Harte. They realize an individual who has passed from the agonized to the optimistic conscience, a person of the solid and homely virtues tempered by mystic certainty of his destiny, his election, hence always ready to take risks, and always willing to face dangers. From the agony of Arthur Dimmesdale to the smug industrial and social rise of Silas Lapham, from the irresponsible kindliness of Huck Finn to the "Luck of Roaring Camp," the movement is the same, though on different social levels. In regions supernal its coördinate is the movement from the God of Jonathan Edwards to the Oversoul of Emerson and the Divinity of Mrs. Eddy. It is summed up in the contemporary representative "average" American of British stock—an individualist, English-speaking, interested in getting on, kind, neighborly, not too scrupulous in business, indulgent to his women, optimistically devoted to *laissez-faire* in economics and politics, very respectable in private life, tending to liberalism and mysticism in religion, and moved, where his economic interests are unaffected, by formulas rather than ideas. He typifies the aristocracy of America. From among his fellows are recruited her foremost protagonists in politics, religion, art, and learning. He constitutes, in virtue of being heir of the oldest *rooted* economic settlement and spiritual tradition of the white man in America, the measure and the standard of Americanism that the newcomer is to attain.

Other things being equal, a democratic society which should be a realization of the assumptions of the Declaration of Independence, supposing them to be true, would be a levelling society such that all persons become alike, either on the lowest or the highest plane. The outcome of free social contacts should, according to the laws of imitation, establish "equality" on the highest plane; for imitation is of the higher by the lower, so that the cut of a Paris gown at $1,000 becomes imitated in department stores at $17.50, and the play of the rich becomes the vice of the poor. This process of levelling up through imitation is facilitated by the so-called "standardization" of externals. In these days of ready-made clothes, factory-made goods, refrigerating plants, it is almost impossible that the mass of the inhabitants of this country should wear other than uniform clothes, use other than uniform furniture or utensils, or eat anything but the same kind of food.

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In these days of rapid transit and industrial mobility it must seem impossible that any stratification of population should be permanent. Hardly anybody seems to have been born where he lives, or to live where he has been born. The teetering of demand and supply in industry and commerce keeps large masses of population constantly mobile; so that many people no longer can be said to have homes. This mobility reinforces the use of English—for a *lingua franca*, intelligible everywhere, becomes indispensable—by immigrants. And ideals that are felt to belong with the language tend to become "standardized," widespread, uniform, through the devices of the telegraph and the telephone, the syndication of "literature," the cheap newspaper and the cheap novel, the vaudeville circuit, the "movie," and the star system. Even more significantly, mobility leads to the propinquity of the different stocks, thus promoting intermarriage and pointing to the coming of a new "American race"—a blend of at least all the European stocks (for there seems to be some difference of opinion as to whether negroes also should constitute an element in this blend) into a newer and better being whose qualities and ideals shall be the qualities and ideals of the contemporary American of British ancestry. Apart from the unintentional impulsion towards this end, of the conditions I have just enumerated, there exists the instrument especially devised for this purpose which we call the public school—and to some extent there is the State university. That the end has been and is being attained, we have the biographical testimony of Jacob Riis, of Steiner, and of Mary Antin—a Dane and two Jews, intermarried, assimilated even in religion, and more excessively and self-consciously American than the Americans. And another Jew, Mr. Israel Zangwill, of London, profitably promulgates it as a principle and an aspiration, to the admiring approval of American audiences, under the device, "the melting-pot."

IV.

All is not, however, fact, because it is hope; nor is the biography of an individual, particularly of a literary individual, the history of a group. The Riises and Steiners and Antins protest too much, they are too self-conscious and self-centred, their "Americanization" appears too much like an achievement, a *tour de force*, too little like a growth. As for Zangwill, at best he is the obverse of Dickens, at worst he is a Jew making a special plea. It is the work of the Americanized writers that is really significant, and in that one senses, underneath the excellent writing, a dualism and the strain to overcome it. The same dualism is apparent in different form among the Americans, and the strain to overcome it seems even stronger. These appear to have been most explicit at the high-water marks of periods of immigration: the Know-Nothing party was one early expression of it; the organization, in the '80s, of the patriotic societies—the Sons and the Daughters of the American Revolution, later on of the Colonial Dames, and so on—another. Since the Spanish War it has shown itself in the continual, if uneven, growth of the political conscience, first as a muckraking magazine propaganda, then as a nation-wide attack on the corruption of politics by plutocracy, finally as the altogether respectable and evangelical Progressive party, with its slogan of "Human rights against property rights."

In this process, however, the non-British American or Continental immigrant has not been a fundamental protagonist. He has been an occasion rather than a force. What has been causal has been "American." Consider the personnel and history of the Progressive party by way of demonstration: it is composed largely of the professional groups and of the "solid" and "upper" middle class; as a spirit it has survived in Kansas, which by an historic accident happens to be the one Middle Western State predominantly Yankee; as a victorious party it has survived in California, one of the few States outstandingly "American" in population. What is significant in it, as in every other form of the political conscience, is the fact that it is a response to a feeling of "something out of gear," and naturally the attention seeks the cause, first of all, outside of the self, not within. Hence the interest in economico-political reconstruction. But the maladjustment in that region is really external. And the political conscience is seeking by a mere change in outward condition to abolish an inward disparity. "Human rights versus property rights" is merely the modern version of the Declaration of Independence, still assuming that men are men merely, as like as marbles and destined under uniformity of conditions to uniformity of spirit. The course of our economic history since the Civil War shows aptly enough how shrewd were, other things being equal, Marx's generalizations concerning the tendencies of capital towards concentration in the hands of a few. Attention consequently has fixed itself more and more upon the equalization of the distribution of wealth—not socialistically, of course. And this would really abolish the dualism if the economic dualism of rich and poor were the fundamental one. It happens merely that it isn't.

The Anglo-Saxon American, constituting as he does the economic upper class, would hardly have reacted to economic disparity as he has if that had been the only disparity. In point of fact it is the ethnic disparity that troubles him. His activity as entrepreneur has crowded our cities with progressively cheaper laborers of Continental stock, all consecrated to the industrial machine, and towns like Gary, Lawrence, Chicago, Pittsburgh, have become industrial camps of foreign mercenaries. His undertakings have brought into being the terrible autocracies of Pullman and of Lead, North Dakota. They have created a mass of casual laborers numbering 5,000,000, and of work-children to the number of 1,500,000 (the latter chiefly in the South, where the purely "American" white predominates). They have done all this because the greed of the entrepreneur has displaced high-demanding labor by cheaper labor, and has brought into being the unnecessary problem of unemployment. In all things greed has set the standard, so that the working ideal of the people is to get rich, to live, and to think as the rich, to subordinate government to the service of wealth, making the actual government "invisible." *Per contra* it has generated "labor unrest," the I. W. W., the civil war in Colorado.

Because the great mass of the laborers happen to be of Continental and not British ancestry, and because they are late-comers, Mr. Ross blames them for this perversion of our public life and social ideals. Ignoring the degenerate farming stock of New England, the "poor whites" of the South, the negroes, he fears the anthropological as well as the economic effects of the "fusion" of these Continental Europeans, Slavs, and Italians and Jews, with the native stock, and grows anxious over the fate of American institutions at their hands. Nothing could better illustrate the fact that the dualism is primarily ethnic and not economic. Under the *laissez-faire* policy, the economic process would have been the same, of whatever race the rich, and whatever race the poor. Only race prejudice, primitive, spontaneous, and unconscious, could have caused a trained economist to ignore the so obvious fact that in a capitalistic industrial society labor is useless and helpless without capital; that hence the external dangers of immigration are in the greed of the capitalist and the indifference of the Government. The restriction of immigration can naturally succeed only with the restriction of the entrepreneur's greed, which is its cause. But the abolition of immigration and the restoration of the supremacy of "human rights" over "property rights" will not abolish the fundamental ethnic dualism; it may aggravate it.

The reason is obvious. That like-mindedness in virtue of which men are as nearly as is possible in fact "free and equal" is not primarily the result of a constant set of external conditions. Its pre-potent cause is an intrinsic similarity which, for America, has its roots in that ethnic and cultural unity of which our fundamental institutions are the most durable expression. Similar environments, similar occupations, do, of course, generate similarities: "American" is an adjective of similarity applied to Anglo-Saxons, Irish, Jews, Germans, Italians, and so on. But the similarity is one of place and institution, acquired, not inherited, and hence not transmitted. Each generation has, in fact, to become "Americanized" afresh, and, withal, inherited nature has a way of redirecting nurture, of which our public schools give only too much evidence. If the inhabitants of the United States are stratified economically as "rich" and "poor," they are stratified ethnically as Germans, Scandinavians, Jews, Irish, and although the two stratifications cross more frequently than

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they are coincident, they interfere with each other far less than is hopefully supposed. The history of the "International" in recent years, the present *débâcle* in Europe, are indications of how little "class-consciousness" modifies national consciousness. To the dominant nationality in America nationality, in the European sense, has had no meaning; for it had set the country's standards and had been assimilating others to itself. Now that the process seems to be slowing down, it finds itself confronted with the *problem* of nationality, just as do the Irish, the Poles, the Bohemians, the Czechs, and the other oppressed nationalities in Europe. "We are submerged," writes a great American man of letters, who has better than any one I know interpreted the American spirit to the world, "we are submerged beneath a conquest so complete that the very name of us means something not ourselves. . . . I feel as I should think an Indian might feel, in the face of ourselves that were."

The fact is that similarity of class rests upon no inevitable external condition, while similarity of nationality is inevitably intrinsic. Hence the poor of two different peoples tend to be less like-minded than the poor and the rich of the same peoples. At his core no human being, even in "a state of nature," is a mere mathematical unit of action like the "economic man." Behind him in time and tremendously in him in quality are his ancestors; around him in space are his relatives and kin, looking back with him to a remoter common ancestry. In all these he lives and moves and has his being. They constitute his, literally, *natio*, and in Europe every inch of his non-human environment wears the effects of their action upon it and breathes their spirit. The America he comes to, beside Europe, is nature virgin and inviolate: it does not guide him with ancestral blazings: externally he is cut off from the past. Not so internally: whatever else he changes, he cannot change his grandfather. Moreover, he comes rarely alone; he comes companioned with his fellow-nationals; and he comes to no strangers, but to kin and friend who have gone before. If he is able to excel, he soon achieves a local habitation. There he encounters the native American to whom he is a Dutchman, a Frenchy, a Mick, a wop, a dago, a hunky, or a sheeny, and he encounters these others who are unike him, dealing with him as a lower and outlandish creature. Then, be he even the rudest and most primeval peasant, heretofore totally unconscious of his nationality, of his categorical difference from other men, he must inevitably become conscious of it. Thus, in our industrial and congested towns where there are real and large contacts between immigrant nationalities the first effect appears to be an intensification of spiritual dissimilarities, always to the disadvantage of the dissimilarities.

The second generation, consequently, devotes itself feverishly to the attainment of similarity. The older social tradition is lost by attrition or thrown off for advantage. The merest externals of the new one are acquired —*via* the public school. But as the public school imparts it, or as the settlement imparts it, it is not really a *life*, it is an abstraction, an arrangement of words. America is a word: as an historic fact, a democratic ideal of life, it is not realized at all. At best and at worst—now that the captains of industry are becoming disturbed by the mess they have made, and "vocational training" is becoming a part of the educational programme—the prospective American learns a trade, acquiring at his most impressionable age the habit of being a cog in the industrial machine. And this he learns, moreover, from the sons and daughters of earlier immigrants, themselves essentially uneducated and nearly illiterate, with what spontaneity and teaching power they have squeezed out in the "normal" schools by the application of that Pecksniffian "efficiency"-press called pedagogy.

But life, the expression of emotion and realization of desire, the prospective American learns from the yellow press, which has set itself explicitly the task of appealing to his capacities. He learns of the wealth, the luxuries, the extravagances, and the immoralities of specific rich persons. He learns to want to be like them. As that is impossible in the mass, their amusements become his crimes or vices. Or suppose him to be strong enough to emerge from the proletarian into the middle class, to achieve economic competence and social respectability. He remains still the Slav,the Jew,the German, or the Irish citizen of the American commonwealth. Again, in the mass, neither he nor his children nor his children's children lose their ethnic individuality. For marriage is determined by sexual selection and by propinquity, and the larger the town, the lesser the likelihood of mixed marriage. Although the gross number of such marriages is greater than it was fifty years ago, the relative proportions, in terms of variant units of population, tends, I think, to be significantly less. As the stratification of the towns echoes and stresses the stratification of the country as a whole, the likelihood of a new "American" race is remote enough, and the fear of it unnecessary. But equally remote also is the possibility of a universalization of the inwardness of the old American life. Only the externals succeed in passing over.

It took over two hundred years of settled life in one place for the New England school to emerge, and it emerged in a community in which like-mindedness was very strong, and in which the whole ethnic group performed all the tasks, economic and social, which the community required. How when ethnic and industrial groups are coincident? When ethnic and social groups are coincident? For there is a marked tendency in this country for the industrial and social stratification to follow ethnic lines. The first comers in the land constitute its aristocracy, are its chief protagonists of the pride of blood as well as of the pride of pelf, its formers and leaders of opinion, the standardizers of its culture. Primacy in time has given them primacy in status, like all "first-born," so that what we call the tradition and spirit of America is theirs. The non-British elements of the population are practically voiceless, but they are massive, "barbarian hordes," if you will, and the effect, the unconscious and spontaneous effect of their pressure, has been the throwing back of the Anglo-American upon his ancestry and ancestral ideals. This has taken two forms: (1) the "patriotic" societies—not, of course, the Cincinnati or the Artillery Company, but those that have arisen with the great migrations, the Sons and Daughters of the American Revolution, the Colonial Dames; and (2) the specific clan or tribal organizations consisting of families looking back to the same colonial ancestry—the societies of the descendants of John Alden, etc., etc. The ancient hatred for England is completely gone. Wherever possible, the ancestral line is traced across the water to England; old ancestral homes are bought; and those of the forebears of national heroes like John Harvard or George Washington become converted into shrines. More and more public emphasis has been placed upon the unity of the English and American stock—the common interests of the "Anglo-Saxon" nations, and of "Anglo-Saxon" civilization, the unity of the political, literary, and social tradition. If all that is not ethnic nationality returned to consciousness, what is it?

Next in general estimation come the Germans and the Irish, with the Jews a close third, although the position of the last involves some abnormalities. Then come the Slavs and Italians and other central and south Europeans; finally, the Asiatics. The Germans, as Mr. Ross points out, have largely a monopoly of brewing and baking and cabinet-making. The Irish shine in no particular industries unless it be those carried on by municipalities and public-service corporations. The Jews mass in the garment-making industries, tobacco manufacture, and in the "learned professions." The Scandinavians appear to be on the same level as the Jews in the general estimation, and going up. They are farmers, mostly, and outdoor men. The Slavs are miners, metal-workers, and packers. The Italians tend to fall with the negroes into the "pick and shovel brigade." Such a country-wide and urban industrial and social stratification is no more likely than the geographical and sectional stratification to facilitate the coming of the "American race"! And as our political and "reforming" action is directed upon symptoms rather than fundamental causes, the stratification, as the country moves towards the inevitable equilibrium between wealth and population, will tend to grow more rigid rather than less. Thus far the pressure of immigration alone has kept the strata from hardening. Eliminate that, and we may be headed for a caste system based on ethnic diversity and mitigated to only a negligible degree by economic differences.

[The conclusions which Mr. Kallen draws from these conditions will be printed in a second paper in next week's issue of the *Nation*.]

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Book Notes and Byways

CHARLEVOIX'S "LETTERS TO THE DUTCHESS OF LESDIGUIERES."

Father Charlevoix's two-volume "Journal of a Voyage to North America" was published in London in 1761, and later (1763) the book appeared from another London press in somewhat different form, and in a single volume, bearing the title, "Letters to the Dutchess (*sic*) of Lesdiguieres." The preliminary discourse on the origin of the American Indians is omitted from the latter publication, as is also the letter dated from Rochefort, June 30, 1720; and the translation is probably not a new one, but an adaptation of that of the first edition. The "Journal," as published in 1761, contains a map specially made for the work. The "Letters" also is generally supposed to be incomplete without a map. Examination of the map included in some copies (a fact always emphasized by the bookseller's cataloguer) shows, however, that it was not intended for Charlevoix's book, having been engraved by J. Spilberg for the continuation of Smollett's "History of England," and published as such in 1761. The map as it appears in the "Letters" is somewhat changed. The line at the top, containing the words "Engraved for the Continuation of Dr. Smolletts History of England," and the engraver's name in the lower right-hand corner, are erased, but are still almost legible in some copies. There is a change in the cartouche which encloses the title, and the date is made to read 1763. Names and rivers are added, notably around New Orleans and the Gulf Coast; also a boundary-line from Fort Edward to Fort Pensacola. The map in this second state reappears in "The Charters of the following Provinces of North America, viz., Virginia, Maryland, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts Bay, and Georgia" (London, 1766). Lined title of map, which measures 37.8x27.3 centimetres, follows: A | New Map | of | North America | from the | Latest Discoveries. | 1763. |

It is not unlikely that copies of Father Charlevoix's "Letters to the Dutchess of Lesdiguieres" were sold both with and without the map; and, although those containing it are more rare and valuable, the collector whose copy is without it may console himself with the thought that his book is not, in a strict sense, incomplete or imperfect. Probably eighteenth-century booksellers carried maps and other illustrative material in stock, and sold works like Charlevoix's with or without illustrations, depending upon the buyer's personal taste or the length of his purse. In no other way, perhaps, can we account for some of the puzzles which the bibliographer now and then encounters. This question of an old book being "complete," or "perfect," or "as issued" is sometimes difficult of solution, although our friends the booksellers use these terms freely, and not always with scrupulous accuracy.

Charlevoix was a precursor of the modern special correspondent—an enterprising and indefatigable journalist, who performed the task assigned to him with commendable fidelity and not a little ability. Samuel Shute, Royal Governor of Massachusetts, accurately described the mission of the Jesuit Father when he wrote of him as "one Charlevoix, who comes from the Court of France in the quality of an inspector, to make memoirs on Acady and Missisipe and other countries thereabouts." Journalist though he was, this priest produced some historical works of permanent value, which, when carefully checked with other authorities, will always be of great service to the historian of the French régime in America. And to him who reads of the "early day" for the love of it Charlevoix is a delight. His "Letters to the Dutchess of Lesdiguieres" should be made available in an edited reprint—the original edition now being scarce and expensive—just as Mr. Shea made available, many years ago, his translation of Charlevoix's "History of New France." But, sad to say, the reprinting of rare historical works is unprofitable both for the editor and publisher; and it is not uncommon for such enterprises to yield a deficit. However, there is still reason to hope that some scholar will one day edit the "Letters" *con amore,* and that a daring publisher will be forthcoming to take the risk.

JOHN THOMAS LEE.

Correspondence

PROFESSOR DARMSTAEDTER'S REPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg you to insert the enclosed lines in the *Nation* as a reply to the article of Professor Lovejoy. I will not say more, because I cannot reply in the same tone and I think it would be of no use to start a war between German and American professors.

There is, as I have said, now ample documentary evidence concerning the conduct of the Belgian Government. The documents Mr. Lovejoy has examined are very important, but they must be analyzed in connection with the other materials, documents, and facts, and there can be no doubt in the mind of an impartial observer that there existed an *entente,* if not an alliance, among Belgium, England, and France. Some facts were well known before the war, and no "power of divination" was necessary to know the hostile attitude of the Belgian Government. I express the hope that when all the documents and facts are revealed, history will be written in Baltimore in the same way as here.

PAUL DARMSTAEDTER.

Göttingen, Germany, December 28, 1914.

A REPLY TO PROFESSOR DARMSTAEDTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since Dr. Darmstädter vigorously conceals *in petto* the nature of the "facts and documents" by which, none the less, he apparently expects to convince us, there is nothing in his note that calls for direct reply; but it offers an occasion for a final summing up of the singular and grave incident of which your Göttingen correspondent's communications are a part. The facts are nearly all familiar; but they gain in instructiveness when put together connectedly.

For nearly six months German officials and German professors have repeatedly assured us that Belgium had ceased to be a neutral country before the German invasion; that she had agreed to permit French and English armies to cross her territory to attack the Rhineland, apart from any prior violation of her neutrality by Germany, and that—as "Truth About Germany" added—Belgian troops were to join in the attack. Thus ninety-three of the most famous scholars, artists, and men of letters in Germany "pledged their names and their honor" for the following assertion, among others:

It is not true that we trespassed in neutral Belgium. It has been proved that France and England had resolved on such a trespass, and it has likewise been proved that Belgium had agreed to their doing so.

The charge thus made against the Belgian Government was of the utmost gravity, and, if true, of the highest historical importance; it was the sort of statement which responsible men are not wont to make except upon the most substantial evidence. It was, however, apparent from the beginning that the charge implied several extremely improbable things; for example, that, when on the point of wantonly violating Belgium's neutrality, the British Government had gratuitously and ostentatiously proclaimed itself a hypocrite, by giving and demanding solemn assurances that that neutrality would be respected. In spite, therefore, of the eminent names supporting the charge, neutrals generally asked for something of the nature of proof.

Two months *after* the charge was first made, certain documents were found in Belgium which were alleged to furnish such proof. These documents were at first published by the German Government in a garbled form; there is no reason to suppose that anything was added to their text, but the most significant passages in them were suppressed. Even so, as my letter of December 3 showed, the documents, when analyzed, proved the precise opposite of what had been charged. Now, in response to demands for the publication of the entire text, copies of these documents, with some others subsequently discovered, have been given to the world, accompanied by an ingenious gloss by Dr. Dernburg; and they are being distributed gratis to the American public. It is to be presumed, therefore, that they contain the substance of the German case against Belgium.

Never before, doubtless, did an attorney for the prosecution go to so huge an expense to circulate the evidence of the innocence of the defendant; this aspect of the incident is surely one of the most humorous things in all history. For, as all who have read the pamphlet know, it shows, not only that the conversations between Belgium and English military authorities in 1906 had reference solely to action to be taken in case of a violation of Belgium's neutrality by Germany, but also that subsequently, probably in 1912, the chief of the Belgian General Staff plainly told the British military attaché that the Belgians desired no aid from England, *even in the event of an attack by Germany,* since they felt "perfectly able to prevent the Germans from passing through." We now, in fact, know, from this and other evidences, that in 1912-13 a good deal of suspicion and unfriendliness towards England prevailed among Belgian military and diplomatic officials—a state of mind partly due to a foolish, or misquoted, remark of a British attaché and partly, it is probable, fomented from Berlin. It is a matter of record, also—though unrecorded in Dr. Dernburg's pamphlet—that Sir Edward Grey, having learned of these apprehensions, declared to the Belgian Minister in London, on April 7, 1913, that England would never be

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the first to violate the neutrality of Belgium, and that, "in the case of Belgium as in other neutral countries," the British Government only "desired that their neutrality should be respected, and, as long as it was not violated by any other Power, would certainly not send troops itself into their territory."

All of the "facts and documents," in short, show the Belgian Government to have been sedulous in the maintenance of its neutrality—as the interests of the country, no less than its duty, obviously required. Anyone, then, who will compare the facts now established with the German charges will be able to determine with precision the measure of credence to be given to the most solemn declarations made by eminent German scholars upon matters relating to the war. The plain sum of the matter is that the Germans, having first done to Belgium what the Imperial Chancellor was once frank enough to describe as a "wrong," have followed this with the persistent iteration of a groundless libel against the victim of that wrong. It must doubtless be assumed that most of those who have uttered this libel have believed it. But it is manifest that when they began to utter it they possessed nothing closely resembling evidence of its truth; and that, as Dr. Darmstädter's note shows, some of them continue to repeat it after the evidence of its falsity is writ large in German official publications.

ARTHUR O. LOVEJOY.

Baltimore, January 30.

BERNHARDI AND ROLLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following quotation may be of interest:

"And now Force had awakened in the very heart of Law, and it was springing up in all its naked savageness. The new generation, robust and disciplined, was longing for combat, and, before its victory was won, was proud of its strength, its thews, its mighty chest, its vigorous senses so thirsting for delight, its wings like the wings of a bird of prey hovering over the plains, waiting to swoop down and try its talons. The prowess of the race, the mad flights over the Alps and the sea, the new crusades, not much less mystic, not much less interested than those of Philip Augustus and Villehardouin, had turned the nation's head. The children of the nation who had never seen war except in books had no difficulty in endowing it with beauty. They became aggressive. Weary of peace and ideas, they hymned the anvil of battle, on which, with bloody fists, action would one day newforge the power of France. In reaction against the disgusting abuse of systems of ideas, they raised contempt of the idea to the level of a profession of faith. Blusteringly they exalted narrow common-sense, violent realism, immodest national egoism, trampling underfoot the rights of others and other nations, when it served the turn of their country's greatness. They were xenophobes, anti-democrats, and—even the most skeptical of them—set up the return to Catholicism, in the practical necessity for 'digging channels for the absolute,' and shutting up the infinite under the surveillance of order and authority. They were not content to despise—they regarded the gentle dotards of the preceding generation, the visionary idealists, the humanitarian thinkers of the preceding generation, as public malefactors."

This from Romain Rolland's "Jean-Christophe," third volume of the American translation, page 458.

The passage was somewhat puzzling to me because: (1) the *Nation* and other contemporary writing had led me to believe that this kind of mental atmosphere was the monopoly of Prussianized Germany; (2) how was it possible for the alleged apostles and sole inventors of the gospel of force, Nietzsche, Treitschke, Bernhardi, to exert any influence over the supposedly clearer and finer intellects of France?

HANS MENDELSON.

Billings, Mont., February 4.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF MR. RUSSELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just read with considerable amazement your review of Mr. Bertrand Russell's book entitled "Our Knowledge of the External World." To philosophical teachers or investigators who have read the book or who can understand and discount the bias of the critic, this review can do no harm. But it is to be supposed, both from the style of the review and from its publication in the *Nation*, that it is intended for general readers who wish to be kept informed of what is going on in a field in which they cannot pretend themselves to be experts. For such readers this review is not only entirely unilluminating, but positively misleading.

The review is dominated throughout by the writer's resentment of Mr. Russell's "appalling arrogance." The single clear idea that one carries from a reading of the review is that the writer, feeling himself to be one of those whom Mr. Russell disparages, has seized an opportunity to express his personal annoyance in three columns. But that is certainly not what a reader of the *Nation* may reasonably demand. He may reasonably demand that he be correctly informed of the importance of the work, of its influence and standing, and of the esteem which it enjoys in the fellowship of scholars. Now if one did not know better, one would gather from this review that Mr. Russell was some crude amateur whom the reviewer in his acknowleged competence was entitled to suppress. It would certainly not be gathered from this review that Mr. Russell was respected by opponents and followers alike as possessing one of the few genuinely distinguished and brilliant philosophical minds of the day. It is of Mr. Russell that Mr. Santayana has recently written:

"Apart from his well-known mathematical attainments, he possesses by inheritance the political and historical mind, and an intrepid determination to pierce convention and look to ultimate things. He has written abundantly, and, where the subject permits, with a singular lucidity, candor, and charm. . . . I cannot help thinking it auspicious in the highest degree that, in a time of such impressionistic haste and plebeian looseness of thought, scholastic rigor should suddenly raise its head again, aspiring to seriousness, solidity, and perfection of doctrine; and this not in the interests of religious orthodoxy, but precisely in the most emancipated and unflinchingly radical quarter. It is refreshing and reassuring, after the confused, melodramatic ways of philosophizing to which the idealists and the pragmatists have accustomed us, to breathe again the crisp air of scholastic common-sense." ("Winds of Doctrine," pp. 111, 114.)

Mr. Bradley is not given to effusive personalities. In his last volume, in which he devotes much space to a discussion of Mr. Russell's views, he remarks: "There is no living writer with whom I am acquainted whose work in philosophy seems to me more original and valuable than that of Mr. Russell." ("Truth and Reality," p. 309.) The esteem in which Mr. Russell's work is held by such writers as Professor Bosanquet and Professor Royce is well known to their readers and students. Mr. Santayana, Professor Bosanquet, Mr. Bradley, and Professor Royce are, I suppose, philosophers whose standing the *Nation* would not venture to question. They are, moreover, avowed antagonists of Mr. Russell in most fundamental matters of philosophical doctrine.

But even were Mr. Russell's importance not thus proved out of the mouths of the more authoritative of his adversaries, the fact would yet remain that he is by general acknowledgment the leader of a widespread philosophical movement which at the present day enlists the eager support of large numbers of the younger thinkers, both of this country and of England. Whatever one may think of its permanence, "neo-realism" is a significant and vital movement which all generous minds acclaim as a hopeful sign of intellectual inventiveness, and as a quickening impulse that will reinvigorate and renovate old truths even though it does not succeed in establishing new. A peculiar interest attaches to Mr. Russell's latest book because it is pervaded with a spirit of faith and a sense of prophecy. How arrogant the book is can be gathered from the following statement in the preface: "Except in regard to such matters as Cantor's theory of infinity, no finality is claimed for the theories suggested; but I believe that where they are found to require modification this will be discovered by substantially the same method as that which at present makes them appear probable, and it is on this ground that I ask the reader to be tolerant of their incompleteness." The *Nation* thinks Mr. Russell is naïve, and a fit object of ridicule, because he determines "to reform philosophy by scientific method," and is thus governed by the same motive that governed Bacon, Descartes, Spinoza, Kant, Mill, and Comte. The unwitting homage implied in this comparison is the one hint of sound criticism that the review contains. It is true that the scientific method is and ever has been the touchstone of sound philosophy. New movements in philosophy have ordinarily been due to these periodic attempts to bring philosophy back from dogmatism, complacency, pedantry, or romanticism to the intellectual rigor of science. Read in the light of this historical fact, Mr. Russell's book is as stirring and dramatic as it is acute and scholarly.

Your reviewer sweepingly disparages Mr. Russell's historical knowledge. He accuses him of not knowing that Kant's view of space was entirely non-psychological, and therefore not affected by its author's defective psychology. The reviewer will find precisely Mr. Russell's point made in Miss Calkins's "Persistent Problems of Philosophy" (p. 520), where the author writes of Kant's argument that space is perceptual: "There is none the less a decisive objection to Kant's conclusion—the fact, namely, that the consciousness of space as one is not a primitive experience, but a consciousness which has been gradually built

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up, in the largely forgotten past of each individual, by the mental addition of the largest spaces which have been objects of direct experience." Miss Calkins adds that "the discussion of this subject belongs rather to psychology than to philosophy." I cite this author because of her well-known idealistic predilections. That Mr. Russell obtained his knowledge of Berkeley "from the man on the street," as the reviewer further suggests, is, of course, absurd, in view of the detailed examination of Berkeley's view contained in the author's "Problems of Philosophy."

I can scarcely be expected in a letter of this scope to discuss with any fulness the two or three impersonal philosophical questions that the reviewer raises. The method which the writer adopts is that of derision. To his mind there is apparently something inherently ridiculous in Cantor's theory of the infinite, though he does not take the trouble to state the theory fully enough to make it intelligible. Mr. Russell's "logical atomism" is dismissed because apparently the writer finds something funny in the expressions "atomic fact" and "molecular proposition." In this case the reviewer gives us nothing but the words. Mr. Russell is accused of being Aristotelian because he distinguishes "primitive" and "derivative" knowledge, though the reviewer gives us no inkling of the carefully guarded and non-Aristotelian senses in which Mr. Russell employs these notions. The reviewer calmly identifies Mr. Russell's physical sense-data and sensibilia, specifically defined as non-mental, with the "sensations" of Mill, and goes to the length of charging Mr. Russell with being unacquainted with Mill's theory. Finally, he attacks Mr. Russell's attempt to distinguish the sensible and inferential factors in sense-experience, on the ground that no one has a purely sensible experience except painters and draughtsmen, and on the ground that such an experience would be possible only provided the hypothesis of physical "objects" were untrue. The fact is, of course, that Mr. Russell's analysis does not intend for a moment to deny that all of our normal experiences do comprise inferences, and does not intend to judge either of the truth or falsity of these inferences; but intends only to distinguish that which bare sensation gives, and which Mr. Russell thinks is neither true nor false, from that which is reached by inference.

I have devoted myself mainly to the reviewer's misrepresentation of Mr. Russell's actual place in contemporary thought, because it is a question that does not involve doctrinal differences nor admit of serious doubt; and because the *Nation* has already been betrayed into a similar error by its reviewer's accounts of Mr. Russell's "Problems of Philosophy" and Professor Holt's "Concept of Consciousness." In this case, the error is only somewhat aggravated, reflecting possibly the increase of the reviewer's irritation. Certainly in concluding that Mr. Russell is "astonishingly naïve and uninformed" your reviewer makes himself ridiculous to those who are familiar with current philosophy, and misleading to those who are not. The first does not matter, but the second does.

RALPH BARTON PERRY.

Harvard University, January 24.

[Replies to Professor Perry's letter and to the letter which follows will be published in an early issue.—ED. THE NATION.]

BERTRAND RUSSELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hope no one will be deterred from reading Mr. Bertrand Russell's latest volume by the review of it which appeared in the *Nation* of January 21. The review closes with the remark that "Either Mr. Russell is unfathomably deep or he is, after all, astonishingly naïve and uninformed. Our conclusion is that he is not unfathomably deep." There is a third possibility, namely, that the reviewer's prejudice got the better of his discernment. An examination of the review tends to make this third possibility seem the most probable one.

The evidence for Mr. Russell's naïveté and lack of information consists in (a) his "determination to reform philosophy by scientific method," (b) his seeming not to be aware of certain parallelisms between his theories and those of Mill and Bergson, (c) his analysis of what we see in walking around a table, (d) his treatment of Kant's description of space as an "infinite given whole," (e) his statements about Berkeley.

Let us consider these points in order.

(a) Mr. Russell does, indeed, hope for the reform of philosophy by scientific method. To the blasé historicist this seems naïve after the attempts of Bacon, Descartes, Spinoza, Kant, Mill, and Comte. A notable list! Is it not just these men who have made important advances in philosophy rather than the blasé historicists? If this is naïveté, let us have more of it!

(b) Mr. Russell was under no obligations to point out parallelisms with Mill and Bergson in highly condensed lectures to a general audience. This is especially the case since the most notable feature of his view of the external world is not the phenomenalism and perspectivism which it shares with some others, but the precise working out of those ideas.

(c) The analysis of the experience of walking around a table raises a question of introspection which each reader must ultimately settle for himself. Of course it refers to attentive observation, not to a casual glance.

(d) Mr. Russell's statement about Kant's description of space does not imply ignorance of Kant's intention to exclude psychology from the counsels of transcendental philosophy. It does imply the possibly tenable view that in spite of this intention some bad psychology did creep into the transcendental philosophy, and that a better psychologist would have treated psychology differently. The holder of such a view could not agree with the reviewer that his own separation of logic and psychology is "precisely that" which Kant made.

(e) Mr. Russell's incidental references to Berkeley, on pp. 63, 64, are perhaps somewhat misleading, but the reviewer clings to the letter rather than the spirit of the passage. Berkeley's view *per se* is not in question so much as his arguments regarded as a factor in the transition from naïve realism to modern idealisms, or to the awkward dualism produced by juxtaposing the results of modern physics and modern psychology. Such a transition certainly involves the rejection of what the plain man regards as the evidence of the senses.

It may be added that one of the reviewer's statements seems misleading and even naïve or uninformed. He says: "The chiefly novel feature of the new philosophy is the introduction of numbers among the atoms." Now Mr. Russell does not regard numbers as irreducible elements, but devotes several pages to their reduction. On pp. 199-208 he defines any number as a class of classes, and mentions with favor the view that classes are "merely symbolic," from which view it follows that "numbers are not actual entities." This does not sound like an "introduction of numbers among the atoms."

ALBERT R. CHANDLER.

Ohio State University, Columbus, O., February 1.

PYGMALION AND PEREGRINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some of those who have been seeing and reading Mr. Bernard Shaw's "Pygmalion" may have noticed its curious likeness to the eighty-seventh chapter of Smollett's "Peregrine Pickle." A few less like cases might be mentioned, perhaps, but usually with a man, not a girl, as the social filibuster. Peregrine picks up an ignorant slattern with a set of agreeable features, enlivened with the complexion of health and cheerfulness, and with a docile temper, meaning in a few weeks to produce her in company as an accomplished young lady of uncommon wit and an excellent understanding. He buys her of her parent and has his servant give her a thorough scrubbing, burn her clothes, and fit her out fashionably. Having spent much time in training her speech and cautioned her to be careful and to say little, he squires her about in modish company; where, in spite of occasional lapses into bad language, she attracts applause and admiration, and her free manners are interpreted into an agreeable wildness of spirit, superior to the forms of common breeding. In the climax she makes a scene. Some of these points, of course, are self-evident, given the situation; every one of them is exactly paralleled in "Pygmalion." In each case the motive of both the girl's mentor and the author is a sarcastic spirit towards "respectable" and conventional society. The story ends differently in the two cases and naturally is simpler and coarser in Smollett, but no more farcical; for who is more farcical than Mr. Shaw, whatever he means to be? If he can get from Smollett an impulse towards the wholesome humor and the more amiable tone which every one notices in "Pygmalion," we may hope he will try the same unlikely source again.

JOHN S. P. TATLOCK.

University of Michigan, February 1.

EPISCOPAL SIGNATURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An "Offener Brief an den Erzbischof von Canterbury Herrn Randall Cantuar," from the pen of Graf O. von Baudissin, has recently been published at Berlin (10 pf.). Is it possible that the Count credits the Archbishop with rejoicing in the quaint patronymic of Cantuar instead of merely Davidson? Episcopal signatures undoubtedly have perplexing aspects. The other day a Texas pamphleteer quoted the Bishop of Durham as "H. Dunelm," but we believed better things of the standard-bearers of civilization. Yet Latin languishes in Dallas and Berlin, and historians will be reminded that neither Texas nor Germany was ever subjugated by the Roman Empire. Thus liberty has its penalties and controversy its lighter side.

E. J. G.

The University of Chicago, January 16.

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Literature

HENRY JAMES AS CRITIC.

Notes on Novelists: With Some Other Notes. By Henry James. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50 net.

The papers here collected are the by-product of nearly a score of years—if, indeed, we do not think of Mr. James as primarily a critic, and therefore take this book as part of his major product. It is in this function, at least, that he is least to be disagreed about. Here the famous manner, even though losing none of its difficulties for the timid, most frequently vindicates itself. If it is measurably true that a story-teller ought to go about his business in a straightforward way, it can be far less plausibly held of a critic. Not the least valuable critical processes are complex rather than simple. Mr. James's shades of meaning and expression, the hesitations and reservations, which in his fictions have seemed so often like mere toying and nodding and backing and filling, and, as such, have wearied so many honest and even intelligent readers—these familiar traits are here always tolerable and often valuable. For one thing, we are sure, as we do not always find it possible to be when he is telling a story, that they are traits of manner, and not of a muddled or finicking state of mind. For if one has to use time in learning what Mr. James's critical opinions are, there is never doubt that he has opinions strong and clear.

It is not by chance that more than half this volume is given to French novelists—George Sand, Balzac, the younger Dumas, Flaubert, and Zola. The sturdy patriot who is in the habit of deploring Mr. James as the arch-expatriate of all time, may take comfort in the fact that his literary derivation is hardly more English than American. If his lack of grace and clarity are sufficiently Anglo-American, so are not his craftiness of mind and finesse of hand. Yet the great French writers with whom he deals here are, with the exception of Flaubert, not those with whom he would seem to stand in closest relation. George Sand, to whom three papers are given, early captured him by her supreme gift of eloquence. She seems to him in youth, "a high, clear figure, a great familiar magician"; and in middle age, when the first of these essays was written (1897), the publication of her letters to De Musset renewed his ardor. As he reads these, "in themselves," he confesses, "not very imposing or even very pleasing," the old emotion returns: "the small fry of the hour submit to further shrinkage, and we revert with a sigh of relief to the free genius and large life of one of the greatest of all masters of expression." A magician she remains to him. The substance of these letters she had long before, with her extraordinary incontinence, exploited in the pages of *Elle et Lui*—a proceeding which Mr. James surmises was, "in intention, a frank plea for the intellectual and in some degree even the commercial profit, to a robust organism, of a store of erotic reminiscence."

For the rest, an effrontery so sublime, an eloquence so unfailing as hers, were capable of taking all barriers by storm. "It was not in a tower of art that George Sand ever shut herself up; but . . . it is in a citadel of style that, notwithstanding rash *sorties*, she continues to hold out." Such was Mr. James's persuasion in 1897, and such it has remained. The occasion for the latest of the three papers was the publication of a new (not the final) instalment of Madame Karenine's "George Sand, sa Vie et ses œuvres." Again, the occasion finds Mr. James prepared to renew and redefend, on the same terms, his enthusiasm for a star of his youth.

To Zola he has no such tie of affection. With George Sand, the apologist speaks throughout. Her faults were moral, and might be forgiven her, since she wrote admirably. Zola's is the intolerable and unforgivable fault:

> "The matter with" Zola then, as far as it goes, was that, as the imagination of the artist is in the best cases not only clarified but intensified by his equal possession of Taste (deserving here if ever the old-fashioned honour of a capital) so when he has luckilessly never inherited that auxiliary blessing the imagination itself inevitably breaks down as a consequence. There is simply no limit, in fine, to the misfortune of being tasteless; it does not merely disfigure the surface and the fringe of your performance—it eats back into the very heart and enfeebles the sources of life. When you have no taste you have no discretion, which is the conscience of taste, and when you have no discretion you perpetrate books like "Rome," which are without intellectual modesty, books like "Fécondité," which are without a sense of the ridiculous, books like "Vérité," which are without the finer vision of human experience.

Zola was, Mr. James heartily admits, "great at congruous subjects," above all "as illustrator of our large natural allowance of health, heartiness, and grossness. . . . It was a distinction not easy to win, and that his name is not likely soon to lose."

The two papers on Balzac, written a dozen years apart, illustrate the change which has occurred in Mr. James's later manner. The first essay is written in very nearly his best style, the second in quite his worst. Of what use, unless to a brow here and there of the loftiest altitude, a criticism, however sound, capable of summing itself up in such terms as this?—

> . . . It is fairly almost a pleasure to our admiration, before him, to see what we have permitted ourselves to call the "chunks" of excision carted off to the disengagement of the values that still live. The wondrous thing is that they live best where his grand vulgarity—since we are not afraid of the word—serves him rather than betrays; which it has to do, we make out, over the greater part of the field of any observer for whom man is on the whole cruelly, crushingly, deformedly conditioned.

The essays on Dumas the younger, "professional moralist," and Flaubert, "the novelist's novelist," are far more readable, as, luckily, is that paper which is not only latest of the collection, but of greatest "timely" interest to the student of current letters. Under the heading of "The New Novel" Mr. James gives his impressions of the state of Anglo-American fiction at the present moment.

He takes no very cheerful view of the situation as a whole; but admits at the outset that the state of criticism is much like the state of fiction, and that the one is in some sense responsible for the other: "The relation is this, in the fewest words: that no equal outpouring of matter in the mould of literature, or what roughly passes for such, has been noted to live its life and maintain its flood, its level, at least of quantity and mass, in such free and easy independence of critical attention. It constitutes a condition and a perversity on the part of this element to remain irresponsive before an appeal so vociferous at least and so incessant; therefore, how can such a neglect of occasions, so careless a habit in spite of marked openings, be better described than as responsibility declined in the face of disorder?" Applying his own criticism, Mr. James finds, first of all, that "the new novel" is democratic—not because it concerns the "condition of the people," but because it makes the "complacent declaration of a common literary level." Messrs. Bennett and Wells, says Mr. James, bear a quasi-parental relation to the most promising of the very youngest British novelists. Theirs the practice, if not the doctrine, of fiction as a product of immersion and saturation. Mr. Bennett knows his Five Towns so thoroughly, is so soaked in his material, that he has only to squeeze himself to be interesting. To give off the thing itself, not to interpret it, is his office. So after finding "Clayhanger" and its sequel "the most monumental of Mr. Bennett's recitals," we proceed to recognize it as "so describable through its being a monument exactly not to an idea, a pursued and captured meaning, or, in short, *to* anything whatever, but just simply *of* the quarried and gathered material it happens to contain, the stones and bricks and rubble and cement and promiscuous constituents of every sort that have been heaped in it, and thanks to which it quite massively piles itself up." So also we find that Mr. Wells's novels, the best of them, "are so very much more attestations of the presence of material than attestations in the use of it that we ask ourselves again and again why so fondly neglected a state of leakage comes not to be fatal to any provision of quantity, or even to stores more specially selected for the ordeal that Mr. Wells's always strike us as being."

The younger novelists here named as in some sense pupils of Mr. Wells and Mr. Bennett in the art of "squeezing the orange," are Hugh Walpole, Gilbert Cannan, Compton Mackenzie, and D. H. Lawrence. Joseph Conrad—nobody's disciple—is given a longer and far warmer appreciation. There is a touch of quaintness in the fact that the only American novelist here spoken of at any

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length is Mrs. Wharton, who is Mr. James's disciple, if any one's.

CURRENT FICTION.

Love-Acre: An Idyl in Two Worlds. By Mrs. Havelock Ellis. New York: Mitchell Kennerley.

The writer of this story is an idealist, with a long experience not only of expressing her creed in literary form, but of giving it practical application. She has had a hand in various social and industrial experiments in city and country. One of them led to a twelve years' residence in Cornwall, where the earthly scene of the present "idyl" is laid. Hawker and others have acquainted us somewhat with the mystical side of the Cornish character. Tobias Trewidden, the young shepherd of this book, is a minor seer, fated to be without honor in his own country, the world of human creatures, and to depend for happiness upon that other world of fancy, or insight, in which he almost equally lives. His boyhood is colored with the memory of his mother, and with his visions of her as a dweller in "Love-Acre," the happy garden to which death has admitted her. Outwardly, the life of Tobias is a miserable failure. The village maid to whom his youthful heart turns is unworthy of him. He loses her, and takes up the burden of another man's crime, from the shadow of which he is never to escape. He is credited with a second crime, and becomes an outcast, with only animals for his friends. Them he "puts to sleep," one by one, as he feels his own end approaching—lest they in turn suffer from the cruelty or neglect of man. But there is no bitterness in his heart, the other-life of the seer of visions and dreamer of dreams has never failed him, and in the end he goes happily to join the beloved mother in the "Love-Acre" of his heart. The poetic Epilogue describing their union is, with its symbolism of forms and colors, difficult to comprehend; but the sentiment and substance are conveyed with rare delicacy.

The Turmoil. By Booth Tarkington. New York: Harper & Brothers. $1.35 net.

This is the portrait of a physically unhealthy, highly emotional, highly intellectual young man, who stands wistfully misunderstood by all the life of the bustling Middle Western metropolis about him; who finds the girl of his heart, another rare soul, drawn to him first by sympathy and then by his character and mind; and who finally realizes his latent powers in the practical way indicated by his environment. "Bibbs" Sheridan is son of the richest of the industrial magnates of the city, regarded with indifferent contempt by his older brother, and with pained and ever-new surprise by his father. The nervous dyspepsia to which he is subject at the opening of the story is as incomprehensible to the elder Sheridan as are the views of an anti-smoke committee of the town. He returns from the sanitarium to find that the whole city, with its worship of energy and "gumption," considers him a moon-gazing foil to the admirable hard-headed practicality of his people. The immediate turn in his life comes with the death of his brother in an accident, and the press of new cares upon his shoulders. Complications, too, ensue upon his acquaintance with Mary Vertrees, who has two excellent reasons for not letting their friendship progress too far. One is the fact that Bibbs's brother was an earlier lover, rejected the day of his death; the other that her home has fallen upon poverty, and the town will regard her pursuit of a half-witted invalid as mercenary. The development of their relations is told with delicacy and interest, and its conclusion is logical. The narrative leaves the figure of Bibbs in main relief. The father, a robust Mammon-worshipper, with the social ineptness of Silas Lapham, looms up in the background. In reproducing the complex material life of the Western city, an aim evidently in mind, Mr. Tarkington falls somewhat short, and his satiric eye is less keen than in novels like "The Conquest of Canaan." His real achievement consists in placing one fairly vivid and unusual soul against a typically unfavorable background and studying his reactions to it. The conclusion, it may be said, is not marked by climactic force except as regards the love-story, for Bibbs is sucked unresistingly down into the business vortex he had once cordially hated.

A Set of Six. By Joseph Conrad. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Since these tales were first printed, Conrad's fame has greatly spread. It has approached the stage where not only a great many people have read some of his work, but a large number who have not read it are feeling that they must. To the person who may be asking what of Conrad's he shall read first, this collection of stories may be recommended. Though they do not include a representation of his earliest manner, they are otherwise fairly representative. The longest of them, here called "The Duel," has appeared by itself under the title, "The Point of Honour." In a prefatory "Note" Mr. Conrad confesses his interest in this tale, and his desire that it be considered one of the group. "The Set of Six," he says, "if not an organic whole, is a homogeneous group written with a certain unity of method. Moreover, 'The Duel' is, so far, my only attempt at historical fiction; as earnest an attempt as if the work were ten times its size." It is a characteristic story, though its setting and conditions are far enough from those which we have come to associate with Conrad—the sea, the tropics, or the sinister world of "The Secret Agent" and "Under Western Eyes." The duellists are two officers of Napoleon's army who, despite the Emperor's dislike for duelling, engage in a series of combats on the field of honor, extending over a long series of years. To the surprise and admiration of their fellows, they, "like insane artists trying to gild refined gold or paint the lily, pursued a private contest through the years of universal contest." The means by which one of the combatants is finally put out of action for good would appear farcical in the hands of an ordinary story-teller. Mr. Conrad somehow contrives to make the episode credible, as well as comic. Of the other tales in the collection, "The Brute," a story of a ship with an evil personality, and "Il Conde," a Neapolitan incident, are, perhaps, the most notable. They are quite different, yet nobody but their writer could have written either.

Sheep's Clothing. By Louis Joseph Vance. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

The advent of "Joan Thursday" seemed to indicate the entrance of Mr. Vance into a more serious field than that to which he had devoted himself. With "Sheep's Clothing," however, he reverts to his early days and presents a tale of mystery, pure and simple, perhaps a trifle too simple. To give the plot would be to give the whole story, but there are a beautiful heroine and a pearl-and-diamond necklace, a slangy hero, and an unusually despicable villain who meets his death through the King of Spades. Theft, smuggling, murder, and love supply the motive power for the action, which is rapid, as it always is in Mr. Vance's work.

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF A MISSIONARY.

Social Christianity in the Orient. By John E. Clough. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.

The title of this book, though in one sense amply justified, is somewhat misleading. It is not a treatise on social conditions, but the autobiography of a missionary. It is the autobiography of a missionary—Dr. John E. Clough—but it is written by his wife. This may seem mysterious, or even Celtic, but it is true. The book is based upon Dr. Clough's diary, letters, and conversations, and is written in the first person; but it was pieced together and "written down for him by his wife, Emma Rauschenbusch Clough."

Dr. Clough was a typical American of the Middle West, and when in 1864, after a strenuous training as pioneer's son and later as student in one of the new Western colleges, he went to India as Baptist missionary to the Telugus, he carried with him the characteristics of his time and country—earnestness, energy, self-confidence, provincialism, adaptability, and complete devotion. And the problem what will happen when this sort of man goes to work in a society like that of the low-caste Madigas of the Telugu country, explains the fascination of this most interesting book. It must be evident from the outset that the changes resulting will not be confined to the Telugus: and, indeed, the charm of Dr. Clough's account is partly due to his frankness in letting us see how his own ideas on all but the fundamentals were gradually made over by his forty years in India. When he landed at Madras it was

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with the conviction that everything in Hinduism was bad and ought to be torn up and replaced by what he had to bring; and that not only American Baptist theology, but American Baptist methods must be transplanted bodily to India. "It distressed many thoughtful men and women in Christian lands at that time to think that unless the heathen heard the gospel of Jesus Christ and accepted it they would be eternally lost. This was my opinion, too, when I went to India. It formed my missionary motive. I looked upon the Hindus as simply heathen: I wanted to see them converted. As the years passed I grew tolerant, and often told the caste people if they could not or would not receive Jesus Christ as their Saviour, to serve their own gods faithfully. During my visits to America I sometimes told American audiences that the Hindus were in some respects better than they." Among other things that Dr. Clough learned in India was the fact that direct attack upon the gods of the "heathen" never does any good, that preaching the Gospel is but a small part of the missionary's most useful service, that genuine education—and not merely of the theological type—is one of the best investments of missionary funds, that Hindu *gurus* may be spiritual men, and sometimes preach a doctrine which is at least an admirable introduction to Christianity, and that native methods of nourishing the religious life are quite as well adapted to India as the kind of church organization worked out in America.

But the effects wrought by Dr. Clough on the Madigas were certainly quite as great as those which they produced on him. Immediately upon his settling in Ongole his work began bearing fruit, and, seconded by the efforts of a most efficient staff of native preachers whom he found already half-Christianized by their study of Raja Yoga, he was enabled in a few years to extend Christian influence into a large number of villages in the immediate neighborhood. His work, however, was entirely among the low-caste Madigas, as the higher castes would have nothing to do with low-caste Christians and their teachers. During the great famine of 1877 Dr. Clough, acting as surveyor and contractor for the British Government in the construction of a canal, was able to give work to all who wished it, and thus save thousands of lives. The following year, in part as a result of the fear of death caused by the famine, most of the Madigas in the district who had been hesitating on the verge of Christianity came to Dr. Clough and begged for baptism. Dr. Clough at first refused, fearing to cheapen Indian Christianity, and feeling uncertain of the genuineness of their conversion. But they were insistent, and after careful examination by the native preachers, most of them seemed to be really worthy. So at length Dr. Clough yielded; 2,222 were baptized in one day, and during six weeks nearly 9,000. Success did not stop here, but the mission continued to grow both in converts and in missionaries—sent out by the Baptist Board to Dr. Clough's aid: so that when he left India for the last time in 1903 the Telugu mission had 100 missionaries, 60,000 members, and 200,000 adherents.

Dr. Clough's book throws considerable light on three of the most pressing problems of modern missions; namely, mass conversion, church organization, and self-support. "The old missionary aim," writes Mrs. Clough, in her preface, "had been to seek the conversion of individuals: to get them detached from their previous life, one by one, and gathered into churches. Dr. Clough did not discard this aim; he added to it his faculty of getting hold of men. Early in his career he recognized the importance of the social group; he left men in it and Christianized the group. Family cohesion and tribal characteristics were factors with which he reckoned." Yet it must be added that Dr. Clough used the mass method with great caution, never baptizing a "convert" till he had made reasonably sure of his conversion. Whether fortunately or unfortunately, the same cannot be said of many of those who are directing the mass movement in India to-day, whose avowed method it is to baptize first and convert afterward.

Dr. Clough's experience would seem to indicate that the modern demand that mission churches shall be self supporting has been largely based on a failure to realize the true nature of the situation in India. In the first place the native preachers gain a certain amount of prestige over their hearers and converts (a prestige much needed) by the very fact of receiving a small salary from mission headquarters. And it is very hard for us well-fed Westerners to realize the difficulty of making much of a spiritual impression upon a starving audience until they have had at least a small meal; or to understand how great a tax it may be to support the school house, the church, the teacher, and the preacher, when one's wages in good times are eight cents a day.

The lesson of Dr. Clough's experience on the subject of church organization has already been hinted at. He found it best to adopt the Indian village rather than the "church" as his unit, and to allow the Christian community to govern itself on the lines of their village customs rather than according to the rules of the American Baptist Association. At the close of his career he wrote: "I have been asked what I would do if I were once more at the beginning of my missionary career; would I bend all my energies to efforts of church organization, or would I make it my chief aim to preach the gospel of Jesus? I unhesitatingly say: I would let all the rest go, and just preach Jesus as the Saviour of men. I am glad I did all in my power to give educational opportunities to the people. I would again raise up large native agency. I would again organize groups of believers, serving God in the simple ways of their village life. I would again do all I could for their social betterment. I can well bear the criticism that I failed in organizing churches on a self-supporting basis. The day will come when Western people will cease to expect the people of the East to adopt their customs and forms of thought along with their faith in Jesus."

S. S. McCLURE.

My Autobiography. By S. S. McClure. Illustrated. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.75 net.

"At college," Mr. McClure writes, "everything went well with me until Friday night, and then a blank stretched before me. It always seemed a hard pull until Monday. I was never able to lay aside the interests and occupations of my life with any pleasure, and I have always experienced a sense of dreariness on going into houses where one was supposed to leave them outside. I have never been able to have one set of interests to work with and another to play with. This is my misfortune, but it is true."

Such an avowal expresses a life of the most varied and resourceful activity, activities so cheerfully and courageously conducted that they may after all have offered scope enough for the instinct of play. At nine years old, just after the Civil War, S. S. McClure came over from the North of Ireland, and began to work in Indiana for a widowed mother and for an education. Before he became a preparatory student at Knox College, he had been a butcher, a railway hand, a store clerk, an iron founder, and a farmer. He tried school-teaching, that classic resource of the self-educated, but lacked the patience to make it go.

He entered Knox College with fifteen cents in his pocket. At the end of the first year, as the result of drudgery as a chore boy, he had six dollars saved. Soon he passed to gentler trades, as pastry cook, restaurant keeper, peddler in specialties and generalities. Meanwhile, his studies were not neglected, and as editor of the *Knox Student* he began what was to be his real profession. At the same time, in his college mates, John Phillips and Albert Brady, he was making future associates for the McClure Syndicate and *McClure's Magazine*. Much earlier, looking with a certain audacity to the future, the penniless subfreshman got engaged to a professor's daughter.

A venture in authorship, "A History of Western College Journalism," which by skilful solicitation of advertising actually paid, was also Mr. McClure's first achievement in publishing. It led him, when he sought his fortune in Boston, to one of the advertisers, Col. Albert Pope, of the Columbia bicycle. Col. Pope offered the young author a position as bicycle instructor in a rink. The trifling obstacle that he had never straddled the lofty wheel of those days, young McClure never mentioned. Reporting for duty, he mastered the machine in a couple of hours and began teaching beginners. Soon, instead, he was editor of the *Wheelman* in the Pope interests. On the strength of this, after seven years of waiting, the

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young editor married, only to throw up his job when the *Wheelman* and *Outing* were united. Then came a modest plunge into New York life, first with the De Vinne Press, then with the Century Company. But Mr. McClure was not the stuff out of which employees are made. After the Century Company had kindly rebuffed his plan of syndicating fiction to the daily papers, he resigned and set up the McClure Syndicate. This was in 1884. The start was a story of H. H. Boyesen. The Syndicate rested on the theory that by distributing stories widely it could pay the authors handsomely while selling cheap to the purchasers. And so it proved.

The Syndicate originally consisted of Mr. McClure and his wife and their high hopes. For years it discounted the future in a fashion that in retrospect looks financially desperate. It throve on good-will. People liked to help, and the Syndicate had a marvellous capacity for rising to the right advice. Charles de Kay pointed the way to Robert Louis Stevenson; Andrew Lang foresaw in Conan Doyle the great seller; Sidney Colvin mentioned a young Mr. Kipling; Brander Matthews hazarded a recommendation on Rider Haggard. Everywhere friendship sustained the enterprise. At a moment when the Syndicate was slipping into bankruptcy, Harriet Prescott Spofford made it a princely Christmas gift of a story the sale of which righted the trembling balance.

When in 1892 Mr. McClure started the magazine which bears his name, it was voluntary aid from Conan Doyle and Henry Drummond that tided the editor over the lean first years. The capacity to win confidence and affection has been of the very essence of Mr. McClure's various successes.

From the first the magazine drew its leading features from staff writers. Miss Tarbell's Life of Napoleon carried the circulation from 40,000 to 80,000. Later her Life of Lincoln and Story of the Standard Oil Company far outdid these triumphs. With the latter work and the studies of municipal and industrial conditions by Lincoln Steffens and Ray Stannard Baker, the so-called "muckraking" movement in American periodical journalism was fairly launched. It is as yet too early to measure the worth of this endeavor. As agitation, its success cannot be denied. How far it has really led to considerate reform of the problems it has vigorously ventilated is more doubtful. In any case it required a sort of genius in Mr. McClure, who, oddly enough, had never served his time in daily journalism, to import the methods of the daily into the monthly field. He is the inventor in America of the magazine with a purpose. The business details of the innovation are interesting. Each of Miss Tarbell's Standard Oil articles cost *McClure's* four thousand dollars. Probably no literary serial has ever been or ever will be booked at any such rates. It should be added that Miss Tarbell was a salaried staff writer, and the expenses of the articles include the incidental costs of an investigation extending over five years.

Whatever the reader may think of the worth of the new periodicalism, he cannot but follow with a thrill the faith, energy, and good-will that guided the endeavor. One feels like hurrahing when, at thirty-nine, Mr. McClure, "fourteen years out of college and never out of debt," saw the magazine pay.

There is much that is incidentally delightful about this record. The recollections of authors are delicate and just. The English has the distinction of simplicity and warmth. The whole Autobiography is inspiring. We have preferred, agreeably to the passage we quoted at the outset, to stress rather the main business of this story than its incidental but very real charm.

ONE OF FITZGERALD'S "SHADOWS."

Dictionary of Madame de Sévigné. By Edward FitzGerald. Edited and Annoted by His Great-Niece, Mary Eleanor FitzGerald Kerrich. 2 vols. New York: The Macmillan Co. $3 net.

"I suppose it is scarce right," FitzGerald once wrote to Fanny Kemble, "to live so among Shadows; but—after nearly seventy years so passed—'Que voulez-vous?'" Well, one thing we very much wish is just such a book as we now have, making the dearest of his Shadows a little clearer to our imagination, so clear, indeed, that we seem to see her walking with that Shadow which FitzGerald has himself become, as it were afar off, *silva in magna*, and talking with him, we think, of the fair places and the many people which were once her living world.

All readers of FitzGerald's letters know that Madame de Sévigné was the best loved of the little group of writers—Cervantes, Wesley, Scott, Crabbe, "dear old Virgil," and one or two others—for whose shadowy conversation he surrendered the society of such great talkers as Thackeray and Tennyson and Carlyle. Perhaps one of the reasons for this preference was in the familiarities the dead allowed him to take with their speech. He would jumble two or three plays together; rip out the parts of a tale he did not like; select from a volume of poems with tyrannous discrimination, and even make dictionaries out of his friends—treatment to which the pride of the living is scarcely amenable.

It is known that for several years before his death he was engaged in making notes for a kind of gazetteer and "who's who" to Madame de Sévigné's letters, at first merely for his own ease in reading, and then with some shy half-thought of the public. With the rest of his papers this manuscript passed into the hands of Dr. Aldis Wright, and now it has been edited and lovingly completed by the author's great-niece. The fashion of the book is like this. The names of the principal personages and places of the correspondences are given in alphabetic order. Under each head there comes first a biographical sketch or description, into which are woven quotations from the letters and various comments of the lexicographer. Then follow, in most cases, notes by FitzGerald, consisting, apparently, though this is not made clear by the editor, of memoranda taken by him in the course of his reading with the purpose of working them up later into the sketches. With these the editor has incorporated explanatory quotations from the letters and other sources in such a way as to show what FitzGerald had in mind when he jotted down a phrase or name. A third section under each head is made up of the editor's own notes on allusions in the main biographical sketch. So at least we have puzzled out the construction with some labor, for the editor's use of brackets and other typographical devices is sometimes hard to comprehend.

But if the mechanical construction of the book, despite the excellence of the printer's work as in all the Eversley volumes, leaves something to be desired, the substance of it is of great interest and owes no small part of its value to the editorial additions. The sketches themselves vary much in length and entertainment. Some are brief notes, with perhaps a bit of pertinent quotation; others, such, for instance, as "Abbé" [de Coulanges], are delightful little essays, turned with the sensitive ease that is always characteristic of FitzGerald's prose. Some names we look for in vain, and sigh for. What, for example, might we not have expected on Racine or Corneille from the united genius of the Lady of Rochers and the Laird of Littlegrange? Neither name is there, although Madame de Sévigné had plenty to say of each. But for such omissions it is hard to quarrel with an author who wrote for his own amusement, and whose work we have, as it were, by stealth. Looking through the volumes for a sketch short enough to quote as an illustration, we come upon the word "Brévannes":

> A Country House of the Duc de Chaulnes some four leagues from Paris. "Dans ce joli pays," as she calls it, Madame de Sévigné is glad to find herself with Madame de Coulanges, now less of a Town Lady than of yore, though in November, after being shut up in Paris for a year:
>
> "Madame de Coulanges est encore plus aimable ici qu'à Paris; c'est une vraie femme de campagne: je ne sais où elle a pris ce goût, il paraît naturel en elle: *Fais ce que tu voudras* est la devise d'ici; et il se trouve qu'on veut se promener beaucoup; car il fait fort beau: on lit, on est seule, on prie Dieu, on se retrouve, on fait bonne chère; je n'y suis que depuis vingt-quatre heures, mais on juge sur un échantillon."—[November 11, 1688.]

That may appear to be very little of FitzGerald and much of Madame de Sévigné; but if, being an inadequate specimen of the work of the author here reviewed, it should by the charm of the French passage he quotes send a reader or two to the letters he so loved, he at least would be content.

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Notes

"Six Weeks at the War," by Millicent, Duchess of Sutherland, will be published immediately by A. C. McClurg & Co.

The Oxford University Press announces the publication of "Representative English Dramas from Dryden to Sheridan," by Frederick Tupper and James W. Tupper.

"This Audacious War," by C. W. Barron, will be published by Houghton Mifflin Co. on Saturday. The same company also announces for publication on that date a new edition of "The Handbook of Universal History," by Carl Ploetz, to which a section has been added covering the first five months of the present war.

The Century Company announces for publication on Saturday: "The Sword of Youth," by James Lane Allen; "Billie's Mother," by Mary J. H. Skrine; "European Police Systems," by Raymond B. Fosdick; "A Russian Comedy of Errors," by George Kennan. Roland G. Usher's "Pan-Americanism" will be issued by this house early in March.

A number of letters written by the late John Muir are now in the hands of his publishers, Houghton Mifflin Co., and will be published some time this spring.

Publications of Frederick A. Stokes Co. in March will include: "A Belgian Christmas Eve" (being "Rada" rewritten and enlarged as an episode of the Great War), by Alfred Noyes; "Authentic Twilight Sleep," by Marguerite Tracy and Mary Boyd; "What the Mother of a Deaf Child Ought to Know," by John D. Wright; "Sketches in Poland," by Frances D. Little.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce the publication this week of: "Automatic Pistol Shooting," by Walter Winans; "The Political Science of John Adams," by Correa Moylan Walsh; "Is Death the End?" by John Haynes Holmes; "The French Revolution and the English Novel," by Allene Gregory; "Works of Edgar Allan Poe" (Annabel Edition, ten volumes), with drawings by Frederick Simpson Coburn, and portrait of the author etched by Thomas Johnson.

"The Limitations of Science," by Louis T. More, is announced for publication in May by Henry Holt & Co. Volumes from the spring list of this house which will be issued on Saturday include the following: "How to Produce Plays for Children," by Constance D'Arcy Mackay; "Plays About Famous Authors," by Maude M. Frank; "Dawn and Other One-Act Plays of Modern Life," by Percival Wilde; "The Study of Shakespeare," by Henry Thew Stephenson; "North of Boston," by Robert Frost; "Blue Blood and Red," by Geoffrey Corson; "American Thought," by Woodbridge Riley. To the Home University Library will be added David Hannay's "The Navy and Sea Power"; D. G. Hogarth's "Ancient East," and Maurice Baring's "Outline of Russian Literature."

The Spring list of the Yale University Press includes the following volumes: "Fairyland," by Brian Hooker; "Poems," by Brian Hooker; "Journeys to Bagdad," by Charles S. Brooks; "Dante's Divine Comedy," translated by Henry Johnson; "Critical Essays of the Eighteenth Century," by Willard H. Durham; "Yale Yesterdays," by Clarence Deming; "Centenary of Yale Medical School," edited by William H. Carmalt; "Writings on American History 1913," compiled by Grace Gardner Griffin; "Municipal Citizenship," by George McAneny; "Undercurrents in American Politics," by Arthur Twining Hadley; "Ethics in Service," by William H. Taft; "The Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching," by George Wharton Pepper; "Conservation of Water by Storage," by George Fillmore Swain; "Problems of American Geology" (Dana Commemorative Lectures); "Notes to a Selection of Latin Verse," by Henry D. Wild and others; "Bracton: De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ," edited by George E. Woodbine.

The spring list of the Macmillan Company includes, in fiction: "A Far Country," by Winston Churchill; "Bealby," by H. G. Wells; "Brunel's Tower," by Eden Phillpotts; "Mrs. Martin's Man," by St. John G. Ervine; "The Hand of Peril," by Arthur Stringer; "The Harbor," by Ernest Poole; "The Business Adventures of Billy Thomas," by Elmer E. Ferris; "Getting a Wrong Start" (Anonymous); "Arrows of the Almighty," by Owen Johnson; a new novel by Arthur Bullard, and a volume of Short Stories by Jack London.—Literature: "Children of Earth," by Alice Brown; "Songs of Kabir," translated by Rabindranath Tagore; "Songs from the Clay," by James Stephens; "Crack o' Dawn," by Fannie Stearns Davis; "New Poems by Robert and Elizabeth Barrett Browning," edited by Sir Frederic G. Kenyon; "The Sistine Eve and Other Poems," by Percy MacKaye; "Parsival," by Gerhardt Hauptmann, translated by Oakley Williams; "Plaster Saints," by Israel Zangwill; "The Garden of Paradise," by Edward Sheldon; "The Faithful," by John Masefield; "A Dome of Many-Coloured Glass," by Amy Lowell; "Deliverance: The Freeing of the Spirit in the Ancient World," by Henry Osborn Taylor; "Spoon River Anthology," by Edgar L. Masters; "The Salon and English Letters," by Chauncey Brewster Tinker.

"Our Villa in Italy," by J. Lucas (Duffield & Co.; $1.50 net), tells very agreeably of the quest and attainment of a Tuscan villa near Fiesole. The making of a garden, farming on shares, hunting old furniture and majolica are the mild but sufficient adventures of the romance. There are hints of the rich Tuscan past, which had its memorials all around the villa. Sketches of the Italian gardeners and artisans reveal humor, precision, and right feeling. The book takes a whimsical, slow course, and is both well-bred and informal. It will excite a distinct homesickness in those who have sojourned among Tuscan gardens. A number of cuts after excellent photographs add to the attractiveness of a book which has much quiet charm.

In the two volumes of "Mr. Chamberlain's Speeches" (Houghton Mifflin Co.; $5 net), edited by Charles W. Boyd, and furnished with an introduction by Austen Chamberlain, we have a representative collection of the public utterances of a man who, whatever else he was, was a statesman of singular force and a speaker of unusual power. The selection ranges from his earliest years to his latest; from his beginnings as the orator of municipal reform, to the end of his life when he made himself the spokesman of the Empire. The editor has, with eminent fairness, included the famous speech of Mr. Chamberlain's Radical days, when he bluntly laid down the doctrine of "ransom" which property must pay for security, and to prevent the ending of private ownership. He got far away from this, before his life was done, as he did also from a conviction expressed in the same speech—namely, that "protection would tax the food of the people in order to raise the rents of the landlord," while it "would lessen the total production of the country, diminish the rate of wages, and raise the price of every necessary of life." As regards the form of Joseph Chamberlain's oratory, no one has given a better description of it than Mr. Asquith, in his memorial remarks in the House. "He may be said with truth to have introduced and perfected a new style of speaking, equally removed from that of either of the great masters of speech who then had the ear of the House and the nation, Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright. . . . He rarely digressed, and he never lost his way. . . . More than any orator of our time he gave the impression of complete and serene command, both of his material and himself. . . . In that striking personality, vivid, masterful, resolute, tenacious, there were no blurred or nebulous outlines, there were no relaxed fibres, there were no moods of doubt and hesitation, and there were no pauses of lethargy and fear." That is a judgment which these collected speeches amply confirm.

Frederic Ernest Farrington's "Commercial Education in Germany" (Macmillan; $1.10 net) presents in clear and readable form an account of what has been accomplished in Germany for the continued education of young people already engaged in the various trades, as well as for the higher training in commercial subjects of students devoting their whole time to study. Some of these enterprises are still in the experimental stage. But the two principles of special education for special tasks and the obligation upon employers to provide opportunity for increase of efficiency through education may be said to have been established in the land of specialization and efficiency. Professor Farrington does not disguise the fact that German social stratification and rigid industrial organization create conditions so different from our own that German commercial schools cannot be bodily imported into this country. On the other hand, he says with truth that we can derive many valuable ideas from German achievements in this field.

The illustrated edition of Macaulay's History of England, which is appearing under the capable editorship of Prof. Charles Harding Firth (Macmillan; $3.25 net), is nearing completion, the fifth volume having been issued. Only one remains to be published. The present volume introduces a pleasing variation by having for its frontispiece, not some gorgeously apparelled personage, but samples of William and Mary pottery. The sovereigns are as homely in the counterfeit presentment of them that constitutes the chief item in the decoration as the decorator could well make them, as homely as the First Duke of Marlborough and the Seventh Earl of Huntingdon are handsome in the portraits that Sir Godfrey Kneller painted of them. This volume has its share of the contemporary prints that constitute the great claim of the edition to admiration. Among them are The Tea Table, a satirical representation of not the least of British institutions in the reign of

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Queen Anne; Warwick Castle in 1710, and A London *Gazette* Seller.

That the monarch who called the first Hague Conference should, a decade and a half later, be an important participator in the greatest war in history is ironical enough for the most cynical. The irony is reflected in the reprint of Frederick W. Holls's "The Peace Conference at The Hague" (Macmillan; $4 net), for the only difference between the reprint and the original edition is in the book advertisements at the back, which in the reprint are headed: "The Great War in All Its Phases." Mr. Holls was one of the delegates from the United States, and his volume, though it refrains from giving those unofficial discussions that would have been as interesting as valuable, is authoritative. We quote without comment the sentence with which our review of the work in its original edition closed: "Time alone can show whether the Permanent Court will fulfil the sanguine hopes which Mr. Holls has voiced with so much temperate conviction."

The handsomely printed "Essays and Studies Presented to William Ridgeway" (Putnam) is a well-merited tribute to the learned author of "The Early Age of Greece." Forty-eight papers are here given, and many more, the editor (E. C. Quiggan) states, were declined for lack of space. The studies, all valuable for students of Greek life, vary in degree of technicality. Among those of more general interest may be mentioned a defence of the structure and thought of the Sixth Book of the Aeneid, by R. S. Conway; a proposed new arrangement of the Platonic Dialogues based on the ethical conception of virtue and happiness, by J. I. Beare; The Nephelokokkygia, by A. B. Cook; The Number Seven in Southern India, by E. Thurston; The Evolution and Survival of Primitive Thought, by S. A. Cook; The Serpent and the Tree of Life, by J. G. Frazer (the Serpent, by a falsehood, persuades the woman to eat of the Tree of Death); The Contact of Peoples, by W. H. R. Rivers; The Beginnings of Music, by C. S. Myers. At the end of the volume there is given, instead of a list of Professor Ridgeway's writings, the menu of a complimentary dinner offered him—the names of the dishes are not Greek but French, and there is no mention of wine or pousse-café.

The "Origin and Meaning of the Old Testament," by Theodore Wehle (New York: R. F. Fenno & Company; $1), is a compact and clear statement of the religious contents of the Old Testament, very useful for the general reader. On page 88, line 8, for "Jehoash" read "Jehoahaz," and on page 121, bottom paragraph, note that Nabopolasoar did not succeed to the Assyrian throne in 625 B. C., but founded the new Chaldean kingdom; the Assyrian kingdom fell in 606 B. C. As the Biblical writings form an important part of ancient religious literature, it is desirable that there should be an introductory sketch that could be put into the hands of students of high schools and colleges. Such a work is "The Bible as Literature," by Dr. Irving Francis Wood and Dr. Elihu Grant (New York: The Abingdon Press; $1.50), a popular but carefully written outline. The Old Testament prophetic thought is expounded in an effective way by Prof. J. M. Powis Smith, in "The Prophet and His Problems" (New York: Scribner; $1.25). Some studies by Prof. C. H. Cornill (particularly on the education of children in Israel, Old Testament music, and psalms in universal literature) have been translated into English and published by the Open Court Publishing Company (Chicago; $1). The geography of Palestine, Mesopotamia, and Babylonia, Egypt, etc. (with remarks on the religious history of these countries) is well described by James Baikie in "Lands and Peoples of the Bible" (London: Adam & Charles Black; $1.50); and Rev. Dr. Francis E. Clark gives, in "The Holy Land of Asia Minor" (New York: Scribner; $1), a very pleasant talk about his visit to the seven cities mentioned in chapters ii and iii of the New Testament Apocalypse. In this connection may be mentioned the finely illustrated volume, "Early American Churches," by Aymar Embury II (New York: Doubleday, Page & Company; $2.80), a work both architectural and historical, and for us, though not for the world at large, a part of ancient history. A wide, though condensed, survey of human history is taken by Prof. John Mason Tyler in "The Place of the Church in Evolution" (Houghton Mifflin; $1.10). Following the progress of life from the protozoa up to moralized man, he finds the solution of the problems of society in the church as the embodiment and expounder of the higher life introduced by Jesus of Nazareth.

In his preface to "Early New England Schools" (Boston: Ginn & Co.; $2), Walter Herbert Small says that the book is "not history, but rather the materials out of which history may be made," and such, we take it, is a modest and truthful description of his work. For the specialist, it presents the facts, with chapter and verse to back them, of the development of the schools from the original "grammar school"—that strange beginning *in mediis rebus*—to the inception of the modern system. That it is not merely a "source book" the layman may reasonably rejoice. There is, indeed, nothing dry-as-dust about it, though it incurs another Carlylean condemnation in that it lacks an index. If in the course of our reading we are compelled to abandon many a cherished article of faith, we must not grumble overmuch—"magna est veritas," even when she runs amuck. The schoolhouse was not, alas, the first public building to be erected after the meeting-house. The Puritans were practical folk and set up gristmill, smithy, and pound before turning their attention to education. Nor was the grammar school the popular institution of our fond imaginings. In fact, many pages of the present work are taken up with the efforts of early communities to evade the law that imposed such a school on all towns of one hundred inhabitants. The popular ideal seems to have been rather represented by the "English" or writing school, in which the curriculum consisted in reading, writing, and, of course, catechism. The third "R" was curiously late in securing a place beside the other two, and continued to be an optional subject "until the law of 1789 added it to the compulsory studies together with the English language, orthography, and decent behavior." This same law fixed the age for beginning the study of arithmetic at eleven—"at twelve they should be taught to make pens." The book is replete with interesting facts not generally known; nor is anecdote wanting. We wonder if the Maine "school dame" actually *did* define "anecdote" as "a food eaten between meals," and, if so, whence she drew the happy inspiration.

How geography affects war is the subject of the opening article in the *Geographical Journal* for January. The author, Hilaire Belloc, throws much light on the campaign in northeastern France, showing, with three maps, how the strategic lines of advance taken by the Germans and the natural obstacles to be overcome have been provided by geographical conditions. A strong plea for better and cheaper maps made by Alan G. Ogilvie contains several references to the "excellent topographic sheets of the United States Geological Survey." The other article is on the geographical features of Portuguese East Africa by E. O. Thiele and R. C. Wilson, who, during the past three years, have been conducting a mineral survey in the region.

Fanny Crosby, the blind hymn-writer, died at her home in Bridgeport, Conn., on February 12, in her ninety-fifth year. Frances Jane Crosby, who was in private life Mrs. Van Alstyne, the wife of the late Alexander Van Alstyne, a blind music-teacher, was born in New York State on March 24, 1820. She became blind when only six weeks old through mistaken medical treatment, and was educated after the age of fifteen at the New York Institution for the Blind. There also, from 1847 to 1858, she taught English grammar, rhetoric, and Roman and American history. She early displayed the metrical talent which in the course of her long life resulted in the production of some 6,000 hymns. Of these the most famous is "Safe in the Arms of Jesus," which was written fifty years ago for William H. Doane to fit the music of a song that he had composed. Her first hymn, beginning "We are going, we are going to a home beyond the skies," was written for William B. Bradbury, the publisher, and many years later was sung at his funeral by his own request. She also wrote a number of hymns for Sankey and many songs for George F. Root. Among the best known of her hymns are "Rescue the Perishing," "Close to Thee," "I am Thine, O Lord," "Jesus, Keep Me Near the Cross," and "Pass Me not, O Gentle Saviour," and of her songs, "There's Music in the Air" and "Hazel Dell." Fanny Crosby was the author of "The Blind Girl, and Other Poems," 1849; "A Wreath of Columbia's Flowers," 1858; "Bells at Evening, and Other Poems," 1898, and "Memories of Eighty Years," 1906.

Prof. James Irving Manatt, head of the Greek department of Brown University, who died on February 14, was born in Millersburg., O., on February 17, 1845, the son of Robert and Jemima Gwin Manatt. He served in the Forty-eighth Iowa Volunteer Infantry during the Civil War, and graduated from Iowa College, now Grinnell College, in 1869. He studied at the University of Leipzig from 1876 to 1877. Iowa College conferred the honorary degree of LL.D. on him in 1886, and the University of Nebraska in 1902. During the years 1874 to 1876 he was professor of Greek at Denison College, and from 1877 to 1884 at Marietta College. Professor Manatt was Chancellor of the University of Nebraska from 1884 to 1889, and from 1889 to 1893 was United States Consul at Athens. He had been professor of Greek literature and history at Brown University since 1892. He was a member of the managing committee of the American School at Athens, and a delegate to the First International Congress of Ar-

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chæology at Athens in 1905. Professor Manatt was a member of a number of learned societies, and was the author of "The Mycenæan Age" (with Dr. Tsountas), 1897, and of "Ægean Days," 1913. He edited Xenophon's "Hellenica," with commentary, in 1888, and was a frequent contributor to various reviews and magazines.

James Creelman, journalist and war correspondent, who died at Berlin on February 12, was born in Montreal, Canada, on November 12, 1859, and received his early education in the public schools of that city. Running away from home at twelve years of age, he came to New York and obtained a position in a printing office. From there he drifted into the office of the Brooklyn *Eagle*, where, at the age of sixteen, he became a reporter. Early deficiencies in education were supplemented by attendance at Dr. T. De Witt Talmage's lay theological college. Mr. Creelman was connected at one time and another with a number of New York newspapers, notably with the *Herald*, for which he served as correspondent in many of the capitals of Europe, and of the London and Paris editions of which he was for a short time editor. Mr. Creelman's experience as a war correspondent dated from the war between China and Japan, through which he served as correspondent for the New York *World*. Later he represented the New York *Journal* in the brief Græco-Turkish War of 1897, and again in the Spanish-American War and the war in the Philippines. At the time of his death he was acting as correspondent for the New York *American*. Mr. Creelman was the author of "On the Great Highway," 1901; "Eagle Blood," 1902; "Why We Love Lincoln," 1908; "Diaz, Master of Mexico," 1911.

Rodolfo Renier, born at Treviso in 1857, and for many years professor of Neo-Latin languages and literatures in the University of Turin, died on January 8. He is particularly known for his work as editor of the *Giornale Storico della Letteratura Italiana*, which he and Francesco Novati founded in 1883, and which has long been the leading periodical in its field. For a time the same editors published another periodical as well, *Studi Medievali*. In the preface to a volume of learned essays entitled "Svaghi Critici" (1910), Renier remarked: "For many years now my time has been absorbed by professional duties and by the exacting labor which I devote to the *Giornale Storico*. As a producer of original scientific material, I have been dead for some time." Nevertheless, his erudition was vast, and many of his original productions are important, such as "La Vita Nuova e la Fiammetta" (1879) and "Il Tipo estetico della Donna nel Medio Evo" (1885); his editions of the sonnets of Pistoia and the novels of Sercambi; his articles (written in collaboration with A. Luzio) on the life and times of Isabella d'Este. In 1912 there appeared, in honor of his thirty years' professorial work at Turin, one of the usual large memorial volumes, "Scritti varii di Erudizione e di Critica in onore di Rodolfo Renier." The bibliography of his writings as given in this volume includes 45 original articles and 272 critical articles in the *Giornale Storico*, 265 contributions to other periodicals, and 26 separate books. As a critic he was always interesting, often brilliant; and he had no small influence in insisting on the highest standards in Italian scholarship.

Science

SOME MODERN THINKERS.

Major Prophets of To-day. By Edwin E. Slosson. Boston: Little Brown & Co. $1.50 net.

The men here presented as major prophets are: Maurice Maeterlinck, Henri Bergson, Henri Poincaré, Elie Metchnikoff, Wilhelm Ostwald, and Ernst Haeckel. What is a prophet? According to Mr. Slosson, the prophets of a given age are the "men who bring to it distinctive messages and present them in such a form as to sway the currents of contemporary thought." It is noteworthy that this conception of what it is to be a prophet was far from being alone responsible for the election of the major six. For "I was guided," the author tells us, "primarily by the idea that I should be most likely to interest others in the men who have most interested me." Besides this one, two other principles of choice were invoked: "It was necessary to select representatives of diverse types of thought," and no one was eligible who had not become "attractive to the general reader." If Mr. Slosson had not been a fortunate or a judicious person the three considerations mentioned might have resulted disastrously. But we may allow that all is well that ends well. At all events, the names actually selected will doubtless be approved by a large majority of the competent, though it is hardly to be maintained that Poincaré has become, or is destined to become, "attractive" to the "general reader" properly so called.

The purpose of the book is to give its readers an introduction to the six major prophets and their works. In this endeavor the author has succeeded admirably, as he deserved to do. For not only has he read and reflected upon much that his heroes have written, but he has gone abroad and visited them in their homes, thus convincing himself and preparing to convince his readers that the great men of letters and science and philosophy are really men of flesh and blood. The presence of their portraits is a pleasing feature of the book. Happily selected quotations from the works dealt with are interspersed pretty freely throughout the author's own discourse and serve now as text and now as confirmation of his commentary and interpretation. The exposition is rather racy and brilliant than profound. It is, however, in general sound, clear, and of good perspective; and it will have, we hope, the effect of sending the reader to the works of the prophets themselves. Such, too, is the author's hope, and at the end of his account of a given man he appends a list of his works together with a list of commentaries upon them, and adds some valuable hints and suggestions as to the best manner of reading them.

A summary of a summary is rarely satisfactory, and we shall not endeavor here to tell what it is that Mr. Slosson has so interestingly written about his six great men and their systems of thought. The reader of the book must be allowed the pleasure of finding out this for himself at first-hand.

Every one knows that major prophets differ in greatness as the stars in glory. Mr. Slosson doubtless knows that, of his major prophets, the one to whom he has accorded the smallest space is incomparably the greatest. By way of redressing the balance we may record that shortly after the passing of the great thinker there was held in Cambridge, England, an international congress of mathematicians. The members were welcomed by the late Sir G. H. Darwin on behalf of the Cambridge Philosophical Society, of which he was then president. Those who know something of the achievements of Darwin himself in some of the fields common to him and Poincaré will not fail to understand the significance of the following words spoken by the Englishman on that occasion: "Up to a few weeks ago," said Darwin, "there was one man who alone of all mathematicians might have occupied the place which I now hold, without misgivings as to his fitness; I mean Henri Poincaré. . . . It brings vividly home to me how great a man he was when I reflect that to one incompetent to appreciate fully one-half of his work, yet he appears as a star of the first magnitude." How will the ordinary student or professor of philosophy, to say nothing of the "general reader," without scientific or mathematical training or knowledge, manage to understand the philosophy of Poincaré? Indeed, Mr. Slosson does well to warn the reader that he will find much unintelligible to him even in the simplest and most popular of Poincaré's works, but that he should nevertheless persist, "for he is likely to find brilliant and suggestive sentences embedded in the most unpromising material."

The third volume of Dr. Erwin F. Smith's "Bacteria in Relation to Plant Diseases," continuing the treatment of vascular diseases (Carnegie Institution of Washington) carries on the work, which has already been noticed in the *Nation*. The present instalment is characterized by the same patient study and truthfulness in recording results which we have previously commended. The citation of literature has been thorough, and the treatment of the whole subject has been brought up to date. The illustrations are excellent and, unlike a good many recent photographic reproductions, are true illustrations, and not puzzles. Dr. Smith is to be heartily congratulated upon the success which he has met with in keeping his treatment of the difficult technique so plain and so well-proportioned that his experiments can be repeated as desired. When it is remembered that this subject is of immense practical importance in obtaining safe crops of many cultivated plants, the value of this comprehensive and clearly written volume can be best appreciated. Its publication is due to the facilities afforded by the Carnegie Institution for issuing works which could hardly be given to the world by private individuals or by the Government press. The diseases which injure sugar-cane form a considerable part of

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the volume. The bacterial diseases which attack sweet-corn, and those which invade tomatoes are treated of in great detail. One of the most interesting parts of the volume is that which is devoted to the wilt disease of the tobacco plant. It is gratifying to add that the work is enriched by a very minute and exhaustive index provided with sufficient cross-references to prevent disappointment.

Dr. Cyrus Fogg Brackett, professor emeritus of physics in Princeton University, died on January 29 in Princeton. Dr. Brackett was born at Parsonfield, Me., on June 25, 1833, the son of John and Jemime (Lord) Brackett. He graduated from Bowdoin College in 1859, and four years later took his degree of M.D. Lafayette College conferred the honorary degree of LL.D. on him in 1883, Bowdoin in 1892, and Princeton in 1909. From 1863 to 1864 he was instructor of chemistry at Bowdoin, and from 1864 to 1873 professor. Subsequently he was professor of physics at Princeton for thirty-five years. Since 1908 he had been professor emeritus.

Drama

"INSIDE THE LINES."

Two or three weak spots impair the construction of Mr. Earl Derr Biggers's war play, "Inside the Lines," which is to be seen at the Longacre Theatre. First, it is evident that the British Government would not have replaced a German spy by one who was to pass as such in certain quarters without furnishing him with a complete history of the place—Gibraltar—to which he was to come. Secondly, how does it happen that the proprietor of the hotel, himself a German spy, is not made suspicious by an inquiry concerning the newcomer made by a mysterious person supposed to be a fellow-passenger from Alexandria? Thirdly, discerning ones in the audience could not refrain from reasoning that it would be unsatisfactory to have the American girl in love to the end with a German spy—ergo, he could not really be a German spy. These inconsistencies did not seem, however, to trouble the larger portion of the audience, who accepted the play with some enthusiasm.

The political plot contemplated is stirring enough. The scene is laid at Gibraltar just after the outbreak of the present war. Soon there will be a large fleet of British warships in the harbor, and the two or three German spies on hand are only awaiting the new arrival, with whom, of course, they have been made acquainted through the machinations of the Wilhelmstrasse. The ships come to anchor, the combination is discovered by which all the mines in the harbor can be exploded at once, and all is in readiness for "the day"—all, that is, except the new arrival, who turns out to be a member of the Royal Engineers sent here for the purpose of thwarting the German plot. The final scene is thrilling—for those innocent enough not to see what is coming.

Carroll McComas takes the part of the "true blue" American girl; Lewis S. Stone is the pseudo-spy; Henry Stephenson is the competent commander of the post. Humor is furnished by Americans from the Middle West anxious to get back to their beloved Illinois. F.

"THE WHITE FEATHER."

Even full measure of good acting fails to raise this war drama, at the Comedy Theatre, from the ranks of mediocrity, but the best of acting cannot create interest when dramatic interest flags, and that is the chief fault with "The White Feather"; a fault that might perhaps be overcome by quickening the action of the piece.

The play, which deals with espionage in England, was produced in London under the title, "The Man Who Stayed Home." It presents the activities of one Christopher Brent, an English diplomatic agent, on the trail of German spies. His investigations lead him to a quiet English boarding house on the east coast. The house, presided over by a Mrs. Sanderson, in reality a German woman, is the headquarters of a band of spies, chief of whom is Mrs. Sanderson's grown son, Carl, an employee of the British Transport Service, who by carrier pigeon and wireless telegraphy has been sending news to Berlin. Although Brent's task is not without difficulty and danger, he finds himself under suspicion of being a coward for not having joined Kitchener's army, and his inability to reveal the nature of his work, even to his fiancée, results in his being decorated with a white feather. He supports the insinuation with equanimity, however, and in the end, of course, confounds his detractors.

As Brent, Mr. Leslie Faber gives a remarkably good portrayal. Others in the cast who deserve mention are Arthur Elliott, Mabel Reid, John Burkell, Elaine Inescort, and Eric Maxon. It would be unfair to the producers not to note that there is nothing in the play to offend even the most touchy partisans. The play may have been modified for its presentation here, but seemingly it is presented in its original form. L.

Edwin Arlington Robinson's three-act comedy "Van Zorn" (Macmillan; $1.25 net) depends for its interest almost entirely upon the development of character. Of what is commonly known as action it contains little, although it is by no means devoid of emotional crises. Van Zorn, rich, travelled, altruistic, and imbued with a strong vein of Oriental mysticism, returns home to find Villa, a girl with whom he was secretly in love, engaged to a brilliant artist, his own closest friend. He is convinced that they do not really love each other, and suspects that Villa's affections centre on George Lucas, a dissipated genius. Discerning much potential good in the latter, he cross-questions him, and discovers that his recklessness is the result of a despairing passion and that he is resolved upon suicide. By promising help he induces him to abandon this design. Then, with the artist's consent, he seeks Villa, and asks her whether she is fully prepared to make her own and two other lives miserable, and so successfully appeals to her true self that she sends for Lucas, engages herself to him, and gives the artist his dismissal. To the artist, who finally acquiesces, Van Zorn declares that he has played the part of a true friend and sacrificed no one but himself. This is the whole story, and thus baldly summarized it seems thin and undramatic. But in its entirety it is enriched with a variety of carefully wrought and illuminative detail, and with dialogue which, if somewhat over-precise, is of decided literary excellence. The portrayal of character is vigorous and consistent. Van Zorn, if a strange, idealized type, is, nevertheless, noble and human, with a rich vein of philosophic humor. The cynical, egotistical, but not ungenerous artist is capitally sketched, and the high-spirited, impulsive, and brilliant Villa is a thoroughly feminine study. A little butterfly novelist is depicted with a vivacity that is almost Parisian. The gloomy Lucas is a study, rather than a portrait. He is only made actual by the stage directions. And herein, from the managerial point of view, lies the essential weakness of the play. On the printed page, with the author's notes, it is veritable drama; without them, the full significance of the dialogue, as revelation of the unspoken thought, might easily be missed. The faults of the piece are those of technical workmanship. In general conception it is original and clever.

All English-speaking admirers of the Scandinavian drama will be grateful to Oscar James Campbell, jr., of Wisconsin University, and Frederic Schenck, of Oxford and Harvard, for their translation (the American Scandinavian Foundation, 1914) of three of the best known comedies of Ludvig Holberg, the famous Danish scholar and writer. The selected works are "Jeppe of the Hill," "The Political Tinker," and "Erasmus Montanus." From the modern dramatic point of view they are not of much value, being primitive in construction and farcical in action, but they are interesting as examples of the early Scandinavian theatre, and as illustrations of Danish life and character in the first half of the eighteenth century. On the literary side they show much worldly knowledge, keen observation, satirical wit, and robust humor. The first is another version of the ancient fable which furnished Shakespeare with a motive for his "Taming of the Shrew," but Jeppe, the drunken peasant, becomes a protagonist, instead of a mere spectator like Sly. As the mock lord he reveals a tyrannical disposition, and becomes afterwards the victim of a mock trial, in which he is condemned to the gallows, believing himself to be dead until he is convinced of his resurrection by the whole-hearted thrashing he gets from his exasperated wife. It is excellent fooling, albeit of the rough-and-tumble order, and the piece still finds approval in Denmark. "The Political Tinker" satirizes the working folk who are for ever criticising the conduct of their political superiors. Holberg was a fine old, crusted Tory. The tinker, who regards himself as an ideal administrator, is induced by some practical jokers to believe that he has been elected burgomaster, and is then confronted with problems which drive him to despair and thoughts of suicide. Here again the incidents are wholly farcical, but the satire is clear and vigorous, and the moral, from the author's point of view, indisputable. Moreover, the characterization is vital and humorous, and the social episodes manifestly realistic, and often curiously modern. "Erasmus Montanus" is amusing, and more nearly akin to our notions of comedy than either of the others, but it is hopelessly out of date. The peculiar scholastic pedantry of the pseudologicians which it ridicules is a thing of the past. One might as well poke fun at the Euphuists. But the piece is worth reading for the sake of its character studies. The spirit of Holberg's work is well reflected in this translation. In places, perhaps, it is somewhat artificial in form, but it is explicit and does not mince words or phrases.

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Music

A MUSICAL GENIUS FROM AUSTRALIA.

One of the best-known of opera singers, Nellie Melba, was born in Australia, but not until now has that continent produced a pianist of the first rank—a pianist who is also an original composer of whom great things may be expected. Unless all signs fail, he will do for Australia (and England, too!) what Grieg did for Norway, MacDowell for America. Percy Aldridge Grainger is his full name, but he has wisely simplified it, and now signs himself simply Percy Grainger, following the example of Grieg, who dropped the Hagerup; Wagner, who omitted the Wilhelm, and many others. Reports from English and Continental cities for several years indicated that here was a new musician of uncommon charm and striking individuality, free from pedantry, and sure to please all classes of music-lovers. "He plays as he writes, with an air of breezy enjoyment," said the London *Times;* and the *Telegraph*, of the same city, declared that "such genuine humor and wit, such enthusiasm, such virility, and such masterly musicianship as Mr. Grainger showed are met with only on the rarest of occasions in a musician of any country."

Only three years ago his compositions began to appear in print, and at once the London Philharmonic and other leading organizations throughout England took them up and engaged him as soloist. The same thing happened in Holland, Norway, Denmark, Germany; and everywhere the newspapers sounded his praise. "At last a poet at the piano!" wrote a Frankfurt critic, adding: "Here was no English coolness nor dryness." The critic of the leading Norwegian newspaper, *Verdens Gang*, said: "Such inspired and unique playing as that of the young Australian, Percy Grainger, I have never heard before." In Berlin he had "a positive ovation," wrote the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, which likened his technique to Rosenthal's and Godowski's—and technique is the least of Grainger's accomplishments. As a composer he is said to be already the most frequently heard of all English writers for the orchestra. His "Mock Morris" and his "Shepherds Hey" each had more than five hundred public performances in England alone last year.

Percy Grainger was born in 1884, at Brighton, Australia. His first teacher was his mother, and at the age of ten he gave his first concert at Melbourne. He subsequently studied in Germany six years, one of his teachers being Busoni; and for the last fourteen years he has made his home in London. That city has sent to the United States this season a surprisingly large number of high-class pianists, among them Katharine Goodson, Leonard Borwick, Harold Bauer, Leginska, and Ernest Hutcheson (also an Australian). All these are esteemed here (Mme. Goodson is making her sixth American tour, a fact which speaks for itself); but there was special eagerness to hear Grainger, not only because of his brilliant successes in Europe, but because his compositions had already won favor for him here. To Kurt Schindler belongs the honor of having first introduced him to an American audience as a composer. At a concert of the MacDowell Chorus of the Schola Cantorum he produced his "Father and Daughter," "Irish Tune," "County Derry," and "I'm Seventeen Come Sunday," the quaint originality of which made the present writer declare that "one really feels tempted to say that these are the best things that have ever come to us from England." Other conductors, in several of our cities, and players and singers everywhere, soon thereafter took up Mr. Grainger's compositions, and now one sees his name as often as that of the great masters of the past.

His first American appearance as a pianist was made last Thursday in Aeolian Hall in the presence of a large audience, including many prominent professionals. His success was instantaneous and emphatic. Before he had played half an hour he had convinced his critical audience that he belongs in the same rank as Paderewski and Fritz Kreisler. In the case of a composer who plays his own pieces, music-lovers are always ready to overlook technical flaws, because of artistic merits counterbalancing them; but in Grainger's case there is no need of making allowances. He played pieces as widely divergent in style as Busoni's arrangement of a Bach organ prelude and fugue in D major; Brahms's Variations on a Handel theme; Norwegian peasant songs arranged by Grieg; pieces of his own; a Chopin étude; Ravel's "Ondine," and Albeniz's "Triana"—most of them enormously difficult—with the brilliancy of the most accomplished virtuoso, and at the same time with a rare faculty for expressing moods, local color, and national styles. He makes the contrapuntal web of a Bach fugue as clear to the ear as a piece of lace is to the eye; he evokes an astonishing variety of tone colors from his instrument, and builds up climaxes with the subtlest art. There is an agreeable absence of pedantry, and the vivacity of youth enlivens everything he plays, banishing all possibility of boredom no matter what piece he has in hand.

Of special significance was the inclusion in his programme of some of Grieg's Norwegian folksongs and peasant dances ("In Ola Valley" and "Cattle Call" from opus 66, and a Halling from opus 72). Not only were they charming to listen to, but they called to mind the paradoxical perverseness of musicians. Grieg composed several hundred songs and lyric pieces for piano which are absolutely the products of his own genius, yet the sheer ignorance of writers on music caused the whole world to believe until lately that they were simply arrangements by Grieg of Norwegian folk tunes, and that to these he virtually owed all his fame! On the other hand, he did arrange for piano a considerable number of such popular tunes, which were clearly marked as such, and printed in separate volumes. But these tunes, harmonized with superlative art and amazing boldness, have hitherto been withheld entirely from the public by the professionals! Grieg owes nothing of his fame to them; but they will figure hereafter, thanks to Percy Grainger, who is at last making them known. He often played them for Grieg himself, who wrote: "He plays my Norwegian peasant dances as none of my own countrymen can play them. He has the true folk-song poetry in him, and yet it is quite a way from Australia to Norway."

Grieg was also interested greatly in his young friend Grainger's efforts to do for English folk music what he himself had done for the Norwegian. Concerning the specimens submitted to him, Grieg wrote: "In them you have thrown a clear light upon how the English folk-song (to my mind so different to the Scotch and Irish) is worthy of the privilege of being lifted up into the 'niveau' of art; thereby to create an independent English music." At his Aeolian Hall concert Mr. Grainger did not play any of these, but presented two pieces entirely his own, the merry and bright "Mock Morris Dance" and the "Colonial Song," which is reminiscent of Australia and has in it a touch of homesickness—a piece as melodious and tenderly emotional as the best of our own MacDowell's. HENRY T. FINCK.

"Wagner und Nietzsche zur Zeit ihrer Freundschaft" is the title of a new book soon to be published by Georg Müller in Munich. The author is the sister of Nietzsche, and the book contains a number of letters written to each other by these two famous men. In one of them, dated 1870, the philosopher congratulates Wagner on his marriage to Liszt's daughter, and then tells of his experiences in the Franco-Prussian War.

Art

AN AMERICAN PAINTER.

Winslow Homer. By Kenyon Cox. New York: F. F. Sherman. (300 copies.) $12.50 net.

This is a notable addition to Mr. Sherman's exquisitely made quartos on American painters. Mr. Cox acquits himself of a difficult task with generosity and discretion. Winslow Homer is a uniquely refractory theme for criticism. The man belonged to no school, scorned all previous art, and, except for a transient friendship with John La Farge and Homer Martin, avoided the companionship of his fellow artists. A *farouche* quality is in most of his works. They are as disconcerting as they are powerful and compelling. They agree ill with other paintings, or even with each other. Mr. Cox justly remarks that you might as well let the sea itself into your drawing-room as a Homer marine. The narrowness of the man was as notable as his intensity. He was bound by what was before his eyes. His work is cut vertically into sections as he changed his habitat. Memory played no part in it, love apparently very

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little. What counts is surprise, admiration, observation as swift as tenacious. He saw Nature with the most strenuous curiosity, much as Manet saw Parisian life, but unlike Manet he never reflected on or schematized his seeing. Charm, the more enticing qualities of handling, the lovelier qualities of color, are only exceptionally in any Winslow Homer.

In all the work there is an element of magnificent *rapportage*. One gets it quintessentially in those miracles of just and powerful denotation, the water-colors. Even here there is a kind of monotony about the scale. The only aquarellist who compares with him is Turner, unless the monochromes of Claude be taken into the account, and both attained certain lapidary perfections by artfully varying the scale and preferring the small. But a fine Homer water-color rings with aggressive color, and is full of a unique ardor and excitement. Homer remains, as Mr. Cox picturesquely observes, "a kind of flaming realist—a burning devotee of the actual." We have to do with an art that is only eye-deep, that is unrelated to thought or memory or tradition or civilization.

Homer is possibly the only painter who, having renounced so much, still seems to rise to the stature of greatness. Mr. Cox explains the portent by an instinctive and irreducible felicity in design. His analysis of the great canvases from the point of view of composition is most instructive and convincing. His conclusion is:

> In Homer's mastery of design we have a quality which is, if not precisely decorative, preëminently monumental; a quality which explains the desire once expressed to me by La Farge, that Homer might be given a commission for a great mural painting; a quality which makes one regret the loss of the mural decorations he actually undertook for Harper & Bros. In this mastery of design we have, undoubtedly, that which gives Homer his authoritative and magisterial utterance, that which constitutes him a creator, that which transforms him from an acute observer and a brilliant reporter into a great and original artist.

Winslow Homer once wrote rather gruffly that he didn't care to be written about. He feared to be the victim of mere rhetoric. We fancy he would approve Mr. Cox's eminently sound and masculine critique. Between it and Mr. Downes's excellent biography, the material for Winslow Homer is singularly complete and satisfactory. It is a paradoxical reward of renunciation that precisely the least sociable and most inaccessible of contemporary Americans should receive the most prompt, generous, and judicious recognition from the sociable art of letters. It is perhaps even more paradoxically instructive to compare the form and definiteness of the few writings concerning the recluse, Winslow Homer, with the endless, formless mass of *-ana* which confuses and fitfully illuminates the memory of the frank self-advertiser, Walt Whitman.

Since there have been many false rumors concerning Dr. W. R. Valentiner, curator of Decorative art in the Metropolitan Museum, his friends may be glad to learn that on January 11 last he was serving with his battery, Bavarian Field Artillery, near Mühlhausen, Alsace, and in good health and unscathed, although the battery had been constantly in action for a fortnight.

The excavations at Corinth in March-June and October-December of last year were among the most successful that the American School has conducted on this difficult site. Attention was devoted especially to a long wall, which runs north and south some distance to the southeast of the Fountain of Pirene, and which was, apparently, the eastern boundary wall of the Greek market place. East of this, at a distance of 5.88 metres, another wall was built in Roman times, a long chamber thus being formed, and here were made the most important discoveries of the year. One of these is a portrait statue over 1.98 metres in height, lacking only a part of the nose and the left forearm. It is of early Roman date and represents a young man. Another statue, less well preserved, is very similar to the first in proportions and seems to have been carved as a pendant to it. Both exhibit close resemblances to the portraits of Augustus and his family and are therefore identified as Gaius and Lucius Cæsar, the grandsons (and adopted sons) of Augustus. A third statue, though only the body from the neck to the knees was found, is a very good specimen of the "portrait in armor," of which the famous Augustus in the Vatican is the best-known example. On the breast-plate of the Corinthian statue is carved a gorgoneion and, below this, two Victories setting up a trophy. A fourth piece of sculpture is a perfectly preserved head from the statue of an emperor represented as a priest with his robe drawn over his head. The features suggest Augustus or Tiberius, but the identification is rendered difficult by the indication of a slight beard, which is unusual in portraits of those Emperors. Finally, an earlier period is represented by a small marble head from a high relief of exquisite workmanship, dating from the end of the fourth to the beginning of the third century B. C., which is much the most beautiful piece of sculpture yet found at Corinth.

There is fund of technical information and historical comment in Garret Chatfield Pier's "Temple Treasures of Japan" (New York: Frederic Fairchild Sherman). In a volume of convenient compass he traces the growth of Japanese art from its earliest, primitive period down to the influx of Buddhism, under which influence, as in India, China, and Korea, all forms of art received a tremendous stimulus. As Mr. Pier remarks: "Before the coming of Buddhism, art received little inspiration through religion, since the sole spiritual expression of Old Yamato was Shinto, the Way of the Gods. And Shinto required no cultus-figure; its buildings were of the simplest construction and entirely devoid of ornament. It was not until the introduction of the splendor-loving Indian creed that the history of art in Japan commenced." In view of the fact that the treasures of the various temples are listed by the Japanese Government as "National Treasure," and are frequently borrowed from their native shrines and placed on exhibition in the three great museums of the country, Tokio, Kyoto, and Nara, Mr. Pier's book should appeal to visiting students. Since it comprises a catalogue of objects of art contained in each of the temples, the search of the passionate pilgrim is thereby greatly facilitated. In addition to a complete glossary, the manner in which the illustrations individually carry a succinct note of description and historical identification must be especially recommended to the makers of museum catalogues in this country and abroad. This book is a good example of enthusiasm tempered by accurate technical comment. While provoking interest, it does not insult the intelligence of the average lover of art.

Finance

PREDICTIONS OF THE STOCK EXCHANGE.

A moderate decline in prices on the Stock Exchange, when last week closed, was ascribed by every one to the situation raised by our Government's note to Germany. The tenor of that note—even its intimations of what might be involved if the recent threat of the Berlin Admiralty were to be carried out, and neutral passengers and crew sunk in the "war zone"—was unquestionably approved. But the soberness of over-the-holiday comments by the foreign offices, and the reckless talk of Count Reventlow and some of the German newspapers, gave a not unnatural color of hesitation to the markets.

Before that incident, a vigorous movement of recovery had been in progress. Here and there, one would encounter the opinion that the actions of the German Government, in regard to food supplies and neutral ships, were evidence of a changing European situation; that such change foreshadowed peace at an earlier date than had been predicted, and that the Stock Exchange was reflecting that possibility. But whether correct or not, this theory of the market's action was hardly the general theory of Wall Street, which ascribed the advance in prices to a number of more immediate causes.

One was the increasingly powerful movement of international exchange, in favor of this country; bringing the rate on London to the lowest figure in the memory of bankers, and supplemented by Government figures, showing the country's merchandise export surplus to be larger, thus far in February, than it was either in January or December. A second cause was the quite unexpectedly favorable response of investors to the large offerings of new securities; even the New York Central's huge $100,000,000 issue being over-applied for.

The third was news that the increase in the Steel Corporation's unfilled orders, during January, was double what even the steel trade had expected. Fourthly came declaration of their usual dividend by three great companies for which, last week, the Stock Exchange had confidently predicted dividend reductions. The "Intermountain rate decision" of the Interstate Commerce Board, granting liberal concessions to the railways, followed.

These were surely sufficient grounds for reviving confidence; yet the idea of peace expectations as an underlying influence is

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worth considering. When prices rose rapidly on the Stock Exchange last Thursday, Wall Street ascribed the recovery to the Commerce Commission's decision of the "Intermountain rate case" in the railways' favor. That incident was only one of several which must have had a share in the rise of prices; the probability is that other and far more fundamental influences wholly superseded it. But that very fact recalls another and older episode in the market, connected with this identical railway case, but bearing also on the larger aspects of the financial situation.

It was in the third week of July, 1911, that the Commission made its first report in this transcontinental rate case, and the ruling was then against the railways. Even before the news was given out, a decline of great violence had occurred on the Stock Exchange. It came on a market which had been advancing cheerfully during many weeks; it was followed by a convulsive break in prices which continued during most of the five ensuing months.

To Wall Street, cause and effect seemed absolutely clear; a bright financial situation had been shattered solely by the attitude of Government towards Big Business. Yet, as time went on, some incidents came to light which were hard to square with that exclusive theory. For instance, it very soon appeared that our stock market was being literally swamped by sales of American securities from Berlin. Why should Berlin have been so particularly discomposed by an Interstate Commerce ruling? Furthermore, every European Stock Exchange was similarly upset.

It was not until the last week of the following November that the mystery was solved. Sir Edward Grey, addressing the House of Commons, then made known the fact that, in the very week of July when Wall Street was drawing conclusions from the Intermountain ruling, the British Foreign Office had peremptorily demanded from Germany an explanation of its performances in Morocco, and had added that, if the German policy of attacking France were not abandoned, "Great Britain would be obliged to take some step in order to protect British interests." Even then, three years before the gauntlet was thrown down by Germany to governments which picked it up, the world recognized an ultimatum.

In the light of the financial history of last July, the crash of midsummer, 1911, on the American stock exchanges is readily explained. Indeed, what then happened on the markets was, in a degree which we could not then have comprehended, a partial foreshadowing of what happened at the close of the same month in 1914. The fact of the Berlin liquidation was no longer a disconnected incident—any more than was the earlier year's wholesale recall of French capital from Germany, which nobody then seemed clearly to understand. Had Wall Street understood all the phenomena of that day, it would perhaps have been better prepared for last July and August.

But the important conclusion from the episode, thus considered, is that the coming European war was exerting a paramount influence on our financial situation as long ago as 1911. Our own short-lived financial recovery of 1912 now appears in retrospect as merely an interlude. The appearance of peace was restored when the German Chancellor yielded, with what grace he could command, to the British Foreign Office. But the world's large financial interests were not by any means reassured, and the world's financial markets actually continued what Wall Street would call the process of "discounting war" for three years before it came.

There is one possible corollary, of considerable present interest. If the world's financial markets (our own included) were foreshadowing so long ahead the conditions which European war would create, is it wholly impossible that the markets of this month (notably our own) were foreshadowing what will follow return of peace? It is characteristic of a war situation that a stock exchange advance, which might reasonably be ascribed to such a cause, should be checked by remote consideration of the question whether this country also might not be involved in Europe's quarrel.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Birkhead, A. Destiny's Daughter. Lane. $1.25 net.
Foster, D. S. Our Uncle William. Franklin Book Co.
Graham, W. Can a Man Be True? Mitchell Kennerley. $1 net.
MacLean, C. A., and Blighton, F. Here's to the Day! Doran. $1.25 net.
Mille, P. Under the Tricolor. Lane. $1.25 net.
Onions, O. Mushroom Town. Doran. $1.25 net.
Prydz, A. Sanpriel. Boston: Badger. $1.25 net.
Ostrander, I. The Primal Law. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.35 net.
Smedley, C. On the Fighting Line. Putnam. $1.35 net.
Taggart, M. A. The Elder Miss Ainsborough. Benziger Brothers. $1.25 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Black, H. The Practice of Self-Culture. Macmillan. 50 cents net.
Brooks, V. W. The World of H. G. Wells. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.25 net.
Cobb, I. S. Paths of Glory. Doran. $1.50 net.
Heaton's Annual, 1915. Commercial Handbook of Canada. Toronto, Canada: Heaton's Agency.
Kelly, F. J. Teachers' Marks. Teachers College, Columbia University. $1.50 net.
Markham, E. California the Wonderful. Hearst. $2.50 net.
O'Donoghue, E. G. The Story of Bethlehem Hospital. Dutton. $5 net.
Powys, J. C. Visions and Revision. Shaw.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

Dunn, J. B. In the Service of the King. Putnam. $1.25 net.
Farquhar, J. N. Modern Religious Movements in India. Macmillan. $2.50 net.
Hawkins, A. H. The New German Testament. Appleton.
Hodges, G. The Episcopal Church. Macmillan. $1.25 net.
Lake, K. The Stewardship of Faith. Putnam. $1.50 net.
McGiffert, A. C. The Rise of Modern Religious Ideas. Macmillan. $1.50 net.
Manson, Rev. W. The First Three Gospels. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark.
Riley, W. American Thought. Holt. $1.50 net.
Stephenson, H. T. The Study of Shakespeare. Holt. $1.25 net.
Taylor, H. O. Deliverance. Macmillan. $1.25 net.
Wilby, T. W. What is Christian Science? Lane. 75 cents net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Convict No. 6000. The Truth about the State Penitentiary at McAlester. Boston: Christopher Pub. House.
Forty-eighth Annual Report of the State Board of Charities for the year 1914. Albany: Lyon.
Hichborn, F. The System. San Francisco: J. H. Barry Co.
Reeder, R. P. The Validity of Rate Regulations. Philadelphia: Johnson.
Sorel, G. Reflections on Violence. Huebsch. $2.25 net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Dawson, W. H. What is Wrong with Germany? Longmans, Green. $1 net.
Fornaro, C. de. Carranza and Mexico. Mitchell Kennerley. $1.25 net.
Gilliat-Smith, E. Saint Clare of Assisi: Her Life and Legislation. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Haworth, P. L. America in Ferment. Bobbs-Merrill.
Johnson, J. A. The Life of a Citizen. Vail-Ballou.
Rose, J. H. The Origins of the War. Putnam. $1 net.
Treitschke, H. von. The Confessions and Life of Frederick the Great. Putnam. $1.25 net.
Wright, W. H. What Nietzsche Taught. Huebsch. $2 net.

TRAVEL.

Shackleton, R. and E. Four on a Tour in England. Hearst. $2.50 net.

POETRY.

Berry, A. L. A Book of Common Verse. Privately printed.
Chaloner, J. A. Pieces of Eight. Palmetto Press. 25 cents net.
Holley, H. Creation: Post-Impressionist Poems. Mitchell Kennerley.
Johnson, B. Rhymes of Little Folks. Putnam. $1 net.
Le Gallienne, R. The Silk-Hat Soldier and Other Poems. Lane. 50 cents net.

SCIENCE.

Boulenger, E. G. Reptiles and Batrachians. Dutton. $6 net.
Dewar, D. Birds of the Indian Hills. Lane. $2 net.
Greer, Edith. Food: What It Is and Does. Boston: Ginn. $1 net.
Hausmann, E. Telegraph Engineering. Van Nostrand. $3 net.
Hewitt, C. G. The House-Fly. Putnam.
Military Field Note Book. First edition. Menasha, Wis.: Banta Pub. Co.
Rogers, A. Industrial Chemistry. Second edition. Van Nostrand. $5 net.
Taylor, N. Memoirs of the New York Botanical Garden. Vol V. N. Y. Botanical Garden.
Wilson, J. S. Field Sanitation. Fourth edition. Menasha, Wis.: Banta Pub. Co.

MUSIC AND DRAMA.

Dramatic Works of Gerhart Hauptmann. Edited by L. Lewisohn. Huebsch. $1.50 net.
Hofmannsthal, H. von. Death and the Fool. Boston: Badger. 75 cents net.
Strindberg, A. Advent. Boston: Badger. 75 cents net.
Zangwill, I. Plaster Saints. Macmillan. $1.25 net.

ART.

Daingerfield, E. Ralph Albert Blakelock. Privately printed. $10 net.
Memoirs of the Colombo Museum. Edited by Pearson, J. Series A, No. I. Privately printed.

TEXTBOOKS.

Akin, F. Opera Stories from Wagner. Reader for Primary Grades. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 45 cents net.
Crockett, Lieut. C. I. A Working Knowledge of Spanish. Second edition, revised. Menasha, Wis.: Banta Pub. Co.

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